

# THE LITERARY GAZETTE.

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AND RECORD OF UNIVERSITY, ECCLESIASTICAL, EDUCATIONAL, SOCIAL, AND GENERAL INFORMATION.

No. 183 (2343).—VOL. VII. NEW SERIES.] LONDON, SATURDAY, DECEMBER 28, 1861.

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Dec. 21, 1861.

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LONDON, SATURDAY, DEC. 28, 1861.

## REVIEWS.

## FINLAY'S GREEK REVOLUTION.\*

MR. FINLAY has been for some time well known as the indefatigable author of a series of very valuable works on Greek History. Having traced the fortunes of this people through the Middle Ages and the Ottoman supremacy, he now concludes his labours with a history of the war of independence and a short sketch of the Bavarian dynasty in Greece. Among his many predecessors who in English or modern Greek have handled this subject, two works only seem possessed of any permanent value—those of Gordon and Tricoupi. Both these men played important parts in the war of independence, and were therefore fully competent from their experience to handle the subject. The work of General Gordon appeared in English in 2 vols., 1832; that of M. Spiridon Tricoupi, now Greek Minister at the Court of St. James's, in modern Greek in 4 vols., 1853. The former production has been undeservedly suffered to fall into neglect, but that of M. Tricoupi, both from its recent publication and its intrinsic value, is still attracting attention, being, in addition to its historical merits, very curious from a philological point of view. Mr. Finlay has not given us any reasons why a new history of Greece should be required; he bears testimony to the great accuracy and value of General Gordon's work, but at several pages we find him at issue with M. Tricoupi, chiefly, however, in minor points of detail not bearing upon the main features of the narrative. We gather that his estimation of the Greek minister is by no means a favourable one. He styles him in his second volume "a man of eloquence, but of a commonplace mind, and destitute of the very elements of administrative knowledge."

It would appear a fact beyond all contradiction that the Greeks are not regarded with any particular interest in Europe at the present time, even by the most ardent enthusiasts in favour of "oppressed nationalities." Very great things were expected of them, and these expectations have been disappointed. Yet, if we would only do them justice, and read their history carefully, we should take a more charitable view of their failures. After so many centuries of bondage, it would be only reasonable to expect that they would have become inoculated with many of the vices of their oppressors; and the unfortunate choice of a sovereign which the protecting Powers made for them, has done a great deal to retard their progress. In this respect we think the former writer a little unfair to them. There is much justice in M. Tricoupi's remark, "We must not expect to find among the slaves of the slaves of the Koran the virtues by which those were rendered glorious, who were born, were educated, and died under the laws of Lycurgus and Solon. The excesses (*τα ἀσεμνουργήματα*) of the Greeks were the lessons they had learned in the Turkish school and the fruits of slavery." This may not, perhaps, palliate their barbarities, but it will explain them; and it would be indeed a marvellous thing if a people, who inherited the traditions of the massacre of Chios, the death-struggle of Mesolonghi, the atrocities of Reschid Pasha and Ibrahim, re-

mained lukewarm when they had an opportunity of retaliating upon their former oppressors. To hate a Turk must be one of the most deeply fixed principles of every Greek. It is indeed a most sad and mournful history this, that tells us of a war to the knife, where no quarter was asked or given; a gloomy catalogue of decapitation, hanging, and impaling, of towns burnt, and women and children sold into slavery. No natives of consummate genius stood forward to help the cause of their country. There were many instances of individual bravery, as in the cases of Germanos, the patriot archbishop, Karaïskaki, Botsaris, Canaris, and Papadimantopoulos; but those who had taken upon themselves to direct affairs—such as Ypsilanti, Capo d'Istria, and Mavrocordato—were men of the most commonplace and feeble character, and frequently allowed petty jealousies and animosities to overpower their patriotism. Many instances of treason and speculation on the part of the Greeks themselves were not wanting, all of which Mr. Finlay, who evidently has a very poor opinion of the national character, parades before us, but M. Tricoupi has either concealed altogether or handled very delicately. It is this great want of minds of the first stamp which has rendered the generality of Englishmen so incurious to the details of this momentous struggle; in this country few people have read, or care to read, more than the briefest details of it; they are as indifferent to its battles as they are to the bloody conflicts which established the liberty of Peru, or gave a Dictator to Paraguay. It would not, however, be correct to consider this history of the establishment of Greek independence as a mere catalogue of horrors. Those who do not care to find out how many prisoners were impaled, or to what *finisse* of torture a Turkish pasha may arrive, will discover abundance to admire in the details of the siege of Mesolonghi, where the Greeks, after having endured every conceivable privation for ten months, gallantly cut their way through the Turkish lines, the women, as M. Tricoupi tells us, being clothed and armed as men, and even the little children who could carry them receiving swords and pistols. To ourselves, in all passages where the valour of his countrymen or a genuine trait of patriotism is to be exhibited, M. Tricoupi seems superior to Mr. Finlay. The description of the siege of Mesolonghi, in the work of the former contains some very noble passages, and will probably not be read by many without warm sympathy. But Mr. Finlay has not always a very genial appreciation of these semi-barbaric heroes. To take an instance; he tells us but little of Diakos, one of the most patriotic and intrepid of the Greek chieftains; but M. Tricoupi has given us at full length the story of his capture and heroic death. It will bear repetition here, for in Diakos we have the genuine Spartan stuff over again. Desperately wounded, he was dragged before Mehmet Pasha, who, overcome by involuntary admiration of his bravery, promised to spare his life if he would join the Turkish service. This Diakos boldly refused, and was accordingly sentenced to a death of the most excruciating and lingering description—to be impaled. He received his sentence with all the indomitable courage of a Greek of the olden time, calmly remarking, *ἡ Ἑλλάς ἔχει πολλοὺς ἄλλους Διάκους*. It is probably the patriotism of M. Tricoupi which has led him into these details, and we are certainly much the gainers by it. It is impossible for any Englishman to read such passages without the warmest admiration; and while we call them to mind, we are inclined to overlook many of the great and glaring defects of the Greek character. The history of Mr. Fin-

lay has struck us as exceedingly accurate, well-arranged, and impartial; but it is written without enthusiasm, and lacks those startling episodes which will always make M. Tricoupi's a very interesting work. As the book of the latter is much larger than the one at present under review, we naturally find, in all cases, the details more ample. Mr. Finlay gives us but a very brief sketch of the battle of Navarino; but in M. Tricoupi's hands the description extends to several pages. As regards this strange affair, which originated in an accident, doubtless opinions will always vary, and will at the present time take a form more especially unfavourable to the Greeks; but it was scarcely high time that a stop was put, in some way or other, to these sickening massacres—as the confessed plan of Sultan Mahmoud was the utter annihilation of the Greek race. It was impossible that Christian countries could remain unmoved witnesses of horrors which at the time fairly thrilled through Europe. On the whole, we cannot help thinking that Mr. Finlay speaks a great deal too leniently of the measures of the Sultan, who, with a policy quite in the Oriental style, hoped to stop the rebellion by a promiscuous slaughter of the innocent and guilty, careless of justice, provided he could strike terror and awe. The execution of the patriarch Gregory, a man of great piety, who had been in no respect mixed up with the secret societies, was one of the most appalling instances of this brutal policy. He was hanged from theintel of the gate of his own patriarchate, his body afterwards dragged by a Jewish mob through the streets, and finally thrown into the Bosphorus. The pious care, however, of some Ionian sailors recovered it. Having been secretly conveyed to Odessa, it was there interred with great pomp and ceremony, and Gregory is now ranked among the martyrs of the orthodox church. We must not, however, omit to say a few words about the Philhellenes, or foreigners in the Greek service. Though men of many nations were found enrolled among their number, yet England furnished the most celebrated, and among these especially Byron, Cochrane, Hastings, Gordon, and Church claim our attention. The death of Byron at Mesolonghi is probably to most people the best-known episode in the whole history. At the present day it is too often the custom to consider the adoption of the Greek cause by the noble poet as a piece of preposterous Quixotism; got up to create a sensation and keep himself prominently before the eyes of the public, of whose praises Byron was ever greedy. By whatever motives he may have been induced, it is certain that he displayed great energy and good sense, and both Mr. Finlay and M. Tricoupi agree in considering his death as a loss to the Greeks. The former is certainly more moderate in his praises; the latter has waxed abundantly eloquent on the subject of the generous Englishman and his self-sacrificing labours for Greece. His account of Byron's death may be truly called one of the most interesting passages of his very interesting and ably-written volume. Of Cochrane, *ὁ ναύαρχος Κόχραν*, as M. Tricoupi somewhere calls him, a much more favourable opinion seems to be held by Mr. Finlay than by the Greek historian. Cochrane's plans were not always very well directed, and his imperious manner disgusted the Greeks; but he was an energetic, practical man, daring in action, and cool in danger. Hastings, who lost his life in the Greek cause at an attack on Anatolikon in 1828, was a brave sailor, and of the utmost service in the war by his naval tactics, eminently superior to those of the best Turkish commanders. Some of his successes in his steamer, the

\* History of the Greek Revolution. By George Finlay, LL.D. (Blackwood and Sons.)

'Karteria,' were most brilliant. Of Gordon, Mr. Finlay has pronounced a very high opinion; but Church seems to have been a weak-minded and inefficient commander. Both historians have given us unfavourable portraits of Ypsilanti and Capo d'Istria. The former was a man entirely unfitted to undertake the Greek cause. He began the struggle before the plot was ripe, and deserted it in the hour of need: his cowardly flight into Austria, when he saw himself unable to arrest the mischief he had caused, and his bombastic farewell-address to his soldiers, are alluded to by Mr. Finlay. The latter document should, however, be read in Tricoupi, where it is given at full length. He died, despised and neglected, at Vienna in 1828. Mr. Finlay has carried his work further than the Greek historian: he has given us a history of the assassination of Capo d'Istria by George and Constantine Mavromichali, of the Bavarian regency, the accession of King Otho, and the Greek revolution of 1843, when the King was compelled to grant the promised constitution. His strictures upon the present government and condition of Greece are very severe, but by no means undeserved. It would have been far better for the Greeks if Prince Leopold, the present King of Belgium, had accepted the crown, to judge by his subsequent role of the kingdom which he eventually chose. After thirty years' liberty, the Greeks are in a very unsatisfactory condition, nor do we see any signs of their amelioration. Their profound belief in their glorious destiny, and earnest desire for the unification of their race, seem irrepressible; but they are not active to take any measures for its promotion, and many years must probably elapse before they will become decent members of the European community. We have found the first two chapters of Mr. Finlay's book, which are on the subject of the different races which inhabit Greece, highly interesting and instructive, being the result, expressed in a concise form, of the labours of many ethnographers. When we think of the different races to be found in Greece at the present time, and the many changes of rulers the country has seen, we are indeed led to wonder what element of the present population is identical with the ancient Hellenes. On this point the greatest diversity of opinion has prevailed among scholars. A very good ethnographical map is to be found in the first volume, though we do not quite understand why so very few modern names are to be found in it. It is very strange to find parts of the map coloured to indicate the settlements of Roumans and Albanians, and to come upon such names as Sperchius, Haliartus, and Hymettus, on the same spots. We know there has been a great *fiore* since the resuscitation of Greece for the restoration of the old classical names, but surely it has not been carried to such an extent as this would indicate. There are a good number of modern names in the beautiful map of modern Greece in Mr. Keith Johnston's large Atlas, published recently by Messrs. Blackwood, which we take to be the best map of the country we ever saw. This *History of the Greek Revolution* will probably be valued by all those who take any interest in the war—we are afraid but a small class of readers. It will be instructive to compare it with M. Tricoupi's work: it is probably a more accurate and a more impartial book than that of the Greek Minister, but not nearly so eloquent or entertaining. Mr. Finlay has certainly caught the rival historian tripping in many places, and to judge from the extracts he gives us, even in Greece the statements of the work have not remained unchallenged. We fear,

however, few English readers will be able to go into these minutiae, to the majority of whom the very names of the Greek heroes are as unknown as they are unpronounceable; but we can surely afford a little applause for the self-sacrificing efforts of many of these brave klephts and armatoles, and a little pity for the cruel deaths they too frequently suffered at the hands of their fanatical Turkish persecutors.

#### THE FOUR GEORGES.\*

OR a work so familiar to the public as Mr. Thackeray's *Lectures on the Four Georges*, it is certainly unnecessary to attempt any formal exposition. We have perused them several times, and on each occasion with an increased admiration for their remarkable condensation and unrivalled brilliancy. The research of the author, although his investigations have not been of a very difficult or fatiguing nature, has been conscientious and complete, and out of his materials a duller man might have made a big book respecting the personal history of the Georges. As it is, one greatly regrets that the work is not longer, and that its scanty pages are not increased by the addition of illustrative notes. With the exception of one or two well-worn stories, which it is rather remarkable that Mr. Thackeray should have inserted, he has selected only the choicest grapes for his vintage, and has certainly presented us with a wine of rich and peculiar flavour. The literary excellence is consummate, aided by an artistic use of the costume of the period and the limner's skill, and not disclaiming the judicious use of rhetoric. In various points it is clearly to be detected that the lectures were originally intended more for a listening than a reading public. Here is the ambushed jest to provoke the sudden roar, and here the patriotic sentiment to elicit the concluding round of applause. It is not difficult to perceive that Mr. Thackeray is very capable of taking broad and statesmanlike views of the lives he is discussing. A chronological examination of his writings would show an increased amelioration in his tone. It is perhaps rather unfortunate for his great reputation that he has so exclusively embraced the province of satire. Whatever subject he discusses he is expected to be sarcastic and funny. As his genius has matured, and his fame increased, this great writer has taken more earnest views of human life, and has become conscious that its range and depth cannot be adequately gauged by the caricaturist's pencil. Still the influence of the old pursuits is manifest, and will probably permanently prevent his assuming the character, quite within his reach, of a great ethical, social, political writer. The public will not release their Will Somers, although they recognise that his apparent folly is but a mixture of bitterness and wisdom. Amid all the proofs of intense culture and a high generous nature, we still detect the glancing of the cap and the jingling of the bells.

There is no history of England which, for the Georgian era, has obtained any classical reputation or permanent authority. There is a great deal of traditional belief and prejudice, and general notions of the characters of these kings are derived rather from such than from a careful sifting of evidence and from well-grounded conclusions. For hundreds of

thousands of ordinary readers Mr. Thackeray will have as much influence as Hume or Macaulay, in stamping an individuality on the kings of the House of Hanover. We believe that, generally speaking, he has striven to be impartial and just, and rarely assails a man unfairly, except something epigrammatic is absolutely necessary. His work is a rebuke to the modern affectation that would treat our history as revolutions of race, creed, and language, rather than of dynastic changes. Some people appear to have an idea that since the Revolution the influence of the Crown has been reduced to a mere cipher. So far from this being true, it is probable, chiefly owing to enormous patronage, that on the whole, within the last two hundred years, its influence has not been diminished. During the time of the Georges the "monarchical principle" stood very high. The will of George the Third triumphed over a parliamentary majority, and over the power of the aristocracy. He remained victor when Charles the First and his children would have succumbed. The influence of each was according to the strength of his character: according to Mr. Thackeray, George the Fourth had no character at all. Each of the kings stands forward in distinct individuality. In commencing the volume, there is some information which people may find useful about the antecedents of the Brunswick family; but Mr. Thackeray will not run the risk of being uninteresting by being improving, and has the prudence not even to refer to the Act of Settlement. Differing from Dr. Doran, he condemns the wife of George I.; and, differing from Professor Aytoun, he condemns Mary Queen of Scots. He generally takes the uncivil side against ladies of unhappy romance. "Yes, Caroline of Brunswick was innocent; and Madame Laffarge never poisoned her husband; and Mary of Scotland never blew up hers; and poor Sophia Dorothea was never unfaithful; and Eve never took the apple—it was a cowardly fabrication of the serpent's." When the first George arrived, "Here we are, all on our knees. Here is the Archbishop of Canterbury prostrating himself to the head of his Church, with Kilmansegg and Schlenkerberg, with their ruddled cheeks, grinning behind the Defender of the Faith." This is one of Mr. Thackeray's stereotyped forms of talking: we get accustomed to it, know what to expect, and are no longer amused. We confess we do not see anything so very funny that when a king, who owed his throne to a very wise act of the Legislature, arrived in England, the Archbishop of Canterbury should make a customary obeisance. But Mr. Thackeray finds it cheap and easy, and an invariable resource, to have a fling at the clergy. This may be set down as a characteristic, despite a sentimental mention of Bishop Heber, to whose memory a poetical lustre will always be attached. Now, we have no objection that the errors of those who ought to be examples should be sharply visited by the satiric lash. But it is unfair that in a work purporting to give a fair view of morals and manners no mention should be made of the great prelates who adorned Christian literature by their genius and learning, and the innumerable hard-working clergy who in lane and hamlet made their own lives a living sacrifice amid vile bodies and still viler souls. If Mr. Thackeray must mention Bishop Porteus, why should he not also mention Bishop Butler? But in reference to Bishop Porteus, Mr. Thackeray presses his sneer, as we suspect is not unfrequently the case, with undue severity. The charge against Porteus is, that as a divine he wrote fulsome verses on the death of George II., a man "in

\* *The Four Georges: Sketches of Manners, Morals, Court and Town Life.* By W. M. Thackeray. Author of *Lectures on the English Humourists*, &c. With illustrations. (Smith and Elder.)



youth, manhood, old age, gross, low, sensual." This sounds badly enough. But probably a candid view of the circumstances will modify our unfavourable judgment. It is one thing to use flattering words on the occasion of a king's birthday, and quite another thing to do so on the occasion of his death. The flattering words which we despise when offered to the living king become something very different when used of the buried sovereign. "The divine who wept these tears over George II.'s memory wore George III.'s lawn." Exactly. But does Mr. Thackeray profess to assert, what he nevertheless chooses to insinuate, that there existed the least connection between the eulogium and the mitre? The death of George II. happened at a remarkable epoch. The King had died at an advanced old age, when the affairs of the nation were carried to the height of glory. The splendid conquest of Canada had thrown the nation into a transport of joy. With such a glorious sunset the old monarch passed away by an awfully sudden death. At this point we quote a few words from Smollett: "A thousand pens were drawn to paint the beauties and sublimity of his character, in poetry as well as prose. The two Universities vied with each other in lamenting his death; and each published a large collection of elegies on the subject. The same panegyric and pathos appeared in all the addresses with which every other community in the kingdom approached the throne, inasmuch that we may venture to say, no prince was ever more popular at the time of his decease. The English are naturally warm and impetuous; and in generous natures affection is as apt as any other passion to run riot." The phenomenon was certainly remarkable, and in this last sentence Smollett has adequately accounted for it. To us, who know more of the history of George II. than did his contemporaries, this *furor* of regret appears ridiculous enough. It is certainly harsh measure to brand Porteus alone with odium for that which he shared "with every other community in the kingdom." We cannot believe that Mr. Thackeray was acquainted with the facts when he made the imputation, which will now become ungenerous, unfair, untrue.

In sixty minutes our lecturer had to discuss the sixty years of George III. In a strain of matchless ability, and frequently with genuine pathos, Mr. Thackeray sparkles over that long personal history, from the young king's early loves with Hannah Lightfoot and Sarah Lennox, till the time when the deaf, sightless, mindless, discredited King, in faint lucid moments, sobbed and prayed. Mr. Thackeray says of him, what can be said of no other George and of few other kings. "He did his best; he worked according to his lights; what virtue he knew he tried to practise; what knowledge he could master he strove to acquire." "The heart of Britain still beats kindly for George III.; not because he was wise and just, but because he was pure in life, honest in intent, and because according to his lights he worshipped Heaven."

We now pass on to George IV. Of course it was to be expected that here Mr. Thackeray would be more sarcastic than ever. Mr. Thackeray hastens to allay any such expectation. "I own I once used to think it would be good sport to pursue him, fasten on him, and pull him down. But now I am ashamed to mount and lay good dogs on, to summon a full field and then to hunt the poor game." This is a common rhetorical artifice. Notwithstanding the disclaimer, Mr. Thackeray proceeds to hunt the prey with considerable ani-

mation. This may be shown by our admiringly borrowing some words from his vocabulary of abuse, with which however we cannot on this occasion quarrel. "Empty scapegrace," "lazy, weak, indolent, besotted, of monstrous vanity, and levity incurable;" "heartless, treacherous;" "debauchee, dissolute, fickle, cowardly;" "swaddled in feather beds, lazy, obese, perpetually eating and drinking;" "steeped in selfishness, impotent for faithful attachment;" "yon fribble dancing in lace and spangles." Certainly Mr. Thackeray has not failed to mount and lay the dogs on.

Mr. Thackeray appears to think that society has changed, and very much for the better, within the last thirty years. "In this quarter of a century what a silent revolution has been working! . . . How it has changed men themselves." The society of the present day cannot fail to be flattered with the supposition, and to bestow its own applause upon itself. We think that the men of this generation rest a little too much upon the fact that they swear so much less in their conversation and drink so much less after their dinner. We must not suppose that mended manners are proof positive of a mended state of society. For the future Pepys that shall portray our manners, and the future Thackeray that shall comment upon them, our own day may furnish as much salient folly and as much grotesque wickedness. Mr. Thackeray speaks of "the ring, another famous British institution gone to decay." This language is perhaps a little premature, when we recollect the national interest excited by the contest between Sayers and Heenan. Are Railway Bubbles so innocuous when compared with a Mississippi scheme? Is there nothing grotesque in society being convulsed about table-turning, and in Mr. Thackeray's own magazine containing revelations of gentlemen floating in the air about the drawing-room ceiling? Are modern sensation trials—Palmer, Stinchurst, Madeline Smith—less exciting than the *causes célèbres* of our ancestors? Is Parson Hackman shooting at Miss Ray less melodramatic than Mr. Roberts' attempting to assassinate Major Murray? The court of Sir Cresswell Cresswell is rather a curious commentary upon our improved virtues, our altered character, and our exterior respectability. The time of George II. is held to be that in which the poor attained the highest point in material comfort and happiness. We are by no means sure that our own has the pre-eminence in morality and self-government. It is certainly no proof of such a theory because the tongues of men have better learned to conceal the thoughts, and because some additional whitening has been laid on the outside of the sepulchre.

A system of ethics might be culled from the writings of Mr. Thackeray, which, with merits peculiarly his own, might be open to grave exceptions. The lectures occasionally remind us of the novels. The Lord Carlisle of a hundred years ago was remarkable in his youth for "awful debauchery and extravagance." In after life he sobers down, and becomes a "worthy peer and good country gentleman." Similarly, in the fiction, Lord Kew, and such as Lord Kew, sow their wild oats and reap a bountiful harvest of respectability in after-life. Now it may be worth while, as a social and moral question, to look a little into this. Is it to be implied that there is any necessary connection between these early oats and the subsequent real grain? In that case a plentiful sowing would be an absolute necessity in the culture of the mind. Only it is unfortunately found that these wild oats, when sown, have a knack of producing throughout life exceedingly bitter crops. While thankfully ad-

mitting the numberless instances in which vice is exchanged for order and prosperity, certain considerations arise which, in many instances, must check our congratulations. A proverb will give us a clue to these: "Our vices leave us, and we flatter ourselves that we leave them." In most cases, a man who has been extravagant and debauched, by the law of his being, when he comes to a mature age ceases to be such. But has he left his vices, or is it only that his vices have left him? Recurring to the imagery suggested by the wild oats, there is a regular rotation of crops. Our inherent evil is a very Proteus, that can change itself to bird or beast, vapour, flame, or running water. A man may leave the coarse, frank vices of his youth, but perhaps he exchanges them for vices which, being complicated with other tendencies, can no longer be detected and named with equal readiness. A drinking, swearing, gambling youth may slip into an avarice that simulates prudence, a pride that apes humility, a selfishness and hard-heartedness that are disguised by the name of comfort and respectability. Men may imagine that they have passed from a set of vices to a set of virtues, when they have only passed from one set of vices to another. The seven ages of man have their corresponding changes of character. Of course we are not denying the blessed reality of repentance and contrition, but men often lay the flattering unction to their souls that they are better, when it has only happened that they are altered.

"He judged human nature so meanly that one is ashamed to have to own that he was right." This is what Mr. Thackeray says of Sir Robert Walpole, and the words look as if intended to give us the keynote to Mr. Thackeray's view of his species. He is a little too much of the school of Swift. He feels inclined to think us all Yahoos. He agrees, we suppose, with the stern language with which theologians and moralists have pretty generally agreed to describe poor human nature. We do not quarrel with such language, beyond urging that it is only partially true. No amount of cynic wisdom shall teach us to lose sight of the religious and spiritual element in man. There are those who, in Tennyson's words, "let the ape and tiger die," that are within them; from the ashes of their desecrated natures they soar to a height little lower than the angels. Mr. Thackeray has withdrawn himself from broad views of humanity to that narrowed section which is the legitimate province of satire. Human littleness is the quarry of the satirist; he looks at all things through a diminishing lens. In mapping out the departments of the human mind, we should assign to satire neither an early nor an elevated position. We willingly concede to Quintilian the claim that satire is altogether Roman: we are glad that it was a product of Latin power and heartless civilization, rather than of the genius and expansive intellect of Greece. May we in conclusion remind Mr. Thackeray of one of Henry Hallam's most striking sentences—"It is an unworthy office, even for the purpose of throwing ridicule on exaggerated praise, to turn the microscope of history on private life." We do not say that the microscope has not been handled more brilliantly than ever microscope was before. Such may be high praise, but it is not high enough for a man like Mr. Thackeray. The moral of all his stories is the mournful refrain, *Vanity of Vanities*. This is true, but there is much beyond this, and we need not stay here. The work of an evangelist is higher than the work of an Ecclesiastes. Mr. Thackeray appears to be growing more sensible of this; in his ripened summer he has departed

from the pettiness of his early writings, he has shown an increased appreciation of what is good and noble; he has given indications of something that might have ripened into philosophy and statesmanship. [All this increases our regret that the consummate painter of manners should not accurately have adjusted his ethical system; that the grave censor of wits and princes should have erred both in leniency and severity; that a great genius, capable of instructing, elevating, kindling his generation, should be able to do little more than to gratify the moments of spleen and to fill up the hours of vacancy.]

### ATHELSTAN: A POEM.\*

MILTON is said to have declared that there were but two fit themes for a great English epic—Paradise Lost and the story of King Arthur. Coleridge, anticipated as to the former and rejecting the latter, limited the choice to a Hobsonian degree, and gave the Fall of Jerusalem the undisputed palm. If there be such a limit, evidently the elder poet was more sagacious in his selection, for not only has the history of the Round Table formed the subject of five poems from the hand of one master which will live to all time, but the successful working of the theme has opened out a new track teeming with precious metal for working up into instrument of song. There is a rush among our poets for the British and Anglo-Saxon diggings. Asser and Bede, the Saxon Chronicle and William of Malmesbury, are searched diligently till a nugget is found. Then incontinently the harp is framed, the chords tuned by Mr. Tennyson's instrument, and a good national air expected to follow the most unskilful touching of the strings. *Athelstan* succeeds rapidly to *Edwin of Deira*, and, as far as the theme is concerned, has this superior merit, that *Athelstan* deserves a high place in the popular heart, as being the first king who effectually drove out the Danes and consolidated his empire over that length and breadth of land which still bears the name of England. Unfortunately for himself, the author has taken no pains to render his hero popular as a character. On the contrary, he has adopted the worst possible view of several phases of his life, that history or legendary tale would permit. For instance, the King is described as deliberately accomplishing the death of his brother Edwin by exposing him in a little boat at sea without sail, oar, or rudder. This is the account of William of Malmesbury, founded on a ballad which he quotes. On the other hand the Saxon Chronicle merely says that he perished at sea, while Huntingdon asserts, "Nec multo post, adversa periculis fortuna, fratrem suum Edwinum, magni vigoris juvenem et bone indolis, maris fluctibus flebiliter amisit." At any rate, *Athelstan*, as the central character of the story and the leader of a great national campaign, should have had the benefit of the doubt. The consequence of his attributing somewhat needlessly this and several other acts of infamy to the King is, that on the day of battle, that great battle of Brunanburgh, which for ever freed our shores from "the heathen of the northern sea," all our sympathies are with Anlaf the Dane, who is a high-minded, gentlemanly warrior. This is evidently a great mistake. There is one other point in the historical treatment of the subject which we would allude to before passing on to consider the poetical

merits of the poem. The author manifestly entertains the notion that if any event, which occurs within a century or two of the date of the action of his story, presents a poetical aspect, he is at liberty to incorporate it into his drama. In one instance he so openly parades the freedom he has taken, that we cannot regard the other cases as mistakes, but must conclude that his ideas of history as a science are terribly loose. Speaking of the close of the great battle, he says,

"At last  
The Raven standard suddenly gave way,  
As unaccustomed to that shame of war;  
The Raven, woven by the sisters three  
Of the fierce Ragnar Lodbrok, king of ships."

His note on this is—"Speaking of a battle which took place in *Alfred's* time, Asser says, there they gained a very large booty, and among others the standard called 'Raven,' for they say that the three sisters of Hubba and Hingwar, daughters of Lodbrok, wove that flag, &c." How the same identical standard could have been taken by Alfred, and reappeared in the ranks opposed to his grandson, does not appear.

In poetical merit, the volume rises generally above mediocrity, but never to any considerable elevation. Many passages are musically written, and there are numerous neat turns of thought, which please us from their vivacity and point, but the author shows a great poverty in power of comparison, which renders the similes and metaphors with which the book abounds very tame, and sometimes vulgar. The following lines are a fair specimen of the poem, as containing some of its characteristic merits and demerits:—

"Then when the sun was low—a golden brooch  
Johing the earth and sky—he watched it set;  
Royally mid a retinue of clouds  
And the bright service of reflected light,  
As subjects shine when monarchs smile on them.  
Long rippled belts of sky were beautiful  
With tints of saffron and of amethyst,  
While higher up ethereal cloudlets perched,  
Hovered like fleecy flames in the grey air.  
Then faint and fainter every glory grew,  
And a thin darkness settling o'er the scene,  
He listened to the waves, as if he longed  
To find a voice in their monotonous plash  
To tell him of his fate."

Comparing the sun to a golden brooch strikes us as being about as inelegant a conceit as we have ever read, while the fifth line is one after the heart of Mr. Thackeray's friend in plush. Jeanes of flunkey memory: "ethereal cloudlets," too, is very weak. But, on the other hand, the whole passage is passably picturesque, and "thin darkness" is a capital expression, conveying the idea of an experienced effect in an original manner.

There are better passages than this, even as there are much worse. The following appears to us to be simple nonsense, occurring as it does in a poem which disregards the miraculous, or views it as a trick of priestcraft. Of *Athelstan* pursuing his foes in the battle, he writes—

"The Dane was scared to see his form, not great  
By gift of nature, take a giant's size,  
Swollen by indwelling of demonic power;  
While flying backs were shot through by his eyes,  
Whence issued rays, like javelins of fire,  
Giving his sword enforced idleness."

In the mechanism of his art, the author is by no means perfect. Many halting lines mar the effect of good passages. His songs are the best part of the book as far as appropriate flow of metre is concerned. There is a very spirited one, wherein an idea, of which Byron is the well-known progenitor, is successfully worked up with a suspicion of Shakespere to flavour it. We quote the first verse—

"A horse, a horse for me!  
My soul's on fire to ride;

My ship at sea  
The horse shall be,  
And away on the roaring tide!  
Then saddle for me!  
My ship at sea,  
And I'm off on the roaring tide!"

Another lyric, in which a comparison between Love and the Sea is instituted, has more vigour than sense; it appears to be very pretty, but all the beauty is on the surface. Here are two verses which will not bear close scrutiny, but which are plausible and melodious—

"Behold, how to it is given  
To mix with the skies above,  
The sea hath the love of heaven,  
And hearts have the heaven of love.  
To me, to me  
Love seems to be like the sea."

Oh! how when the tempest breaks  
The sea into wild life starts!  
So the spirit of love awakes  
The passion of human hearts.  
Yes, yes to me  
Love ever is like the sea.

It will be easily perceived that in the first the comparison is between the sea and the heart, and in the second between love and the tempest, while the inconsequent deduction from both is that love is like the sea.

On the whole, we may say that we should slightly prefer reading the story as here told in verse, to wading through an equal amount of prose on the subject; but the reader must be prepared to have his taste frequently shocked by terribly inartistic lines such as these—

"White-stretched or many an acre of rich ground,  
Stood an old abbey, that of Malmesbury."

One negative merit recommends the book to us more than any positive feature of worth which it contains, namely, that for a blank-verse epic it is not very Tennysonian in point of mannerism.

**HISTORY OF EXETER.\***

"Le rôle d'un auteur," said Diderot, "c'est celui d'un homme qui se croit en état de donner des leçons au public; mais le rôle du critique c'est celui d'un homme qui se croit en état de donner des leçons à celui qui se croit en état d'en donner au public." How are we to play the master with one who gave a lifetime of laborious research to the elucidation of the history not only of Exeter, but of Devonshire, and over whom the grave has only recently closed? Southey has devoted a whole chapter in his *Columbian Philosophy* to the subject of the moral interest of topographical works, and our present Premier has recently descanted on the advantages of local attachment; and if we find neither the racy wit nor overflowing humour of "the Doctor" in his description of Doncaster, we may at least console ourselves with the reflection that Dr. Oliver's *History of Exeter* is by no means deficient in liveliness of style, and might serve as a worthy model for works of a similar character. The author has preserved the middle ground between too much sentimentousness and too great diffuseness; and we shall show our good-nature and judgment by merely stating the very obvious fact, that neither his political nor polemical sentiments, which were of an extreme order, are disguised. It is very fortunate for his reputation that this posthumous work should have fallen into the hands of an editor so considerate and competent as Mr. Edward Smirke.

Exeter rejoices in the title of "Semper fidelis," bestowed upon it by Queen Elizabeth. The supporters of the civic arms are "two

\* *History of the City of Exeter.* By the late George Oliver, D.D. Edited by E. Smirke. Pp. 328. (Exeter, Roberts; London, Longmans.)



Pegasuses;" a countryman showing the latter to a stranger, is reported to have observed, "There be the two race-horses that rinned upon Haldon, w<sup>i</sup> names of 'em put under 'em, Scamper and Phillis." It appears, by a long list of subscribers' names appended to the volume before us, to have lost none of its popularity with the men of the west country, whether still within its borders or longing to return—as Devonshire men invariably do. The circumstances under which the list was formed do not transpire; but it certainly strikes us as a remarkable point that the name of the publisher is set down for six copies only. It is a subject of regret that Dr. Oliver did not avail himself of the opportunities which he possessed for obtaining access to the important and valuable records of the city, and present us with the history of the rise and progress, the fate and fortunes of the municipal organization and internal history of Exeter, which would have been of far higher interest than even the compact summary of sieges, royal visits, and minor incidents, "the memorials and things of fame which do renown" this city.

There are some old traditions, and a few remains, tending to show that the site of Exeter was occupied by a Roman camp. Vespasian is said to have laid siege to the town, which was relieved by Caractacus; and Penda, the Mercian King, to have been taken prisoner by the British King Cadwallin, while engaged in a similar fruitless attempt. The old name of the city was *Caer-isk*, "the City of Waters," which is said to have been exchanged by King Athelstan, in the tenth century, for the expanded form of "*Exan-ceaster*," a distinction without a difference, for *isk*, *exe*, and *whisky* all mean (or rather did mean, with due respect for Farintosh and Usquebaugh) the same thing. Dr. Oliver cavalierly puts out of court old Hoker's legend that the city was once called, from the number of its monasteries, *Monk-town*. We cannot but admire the gallantry displayed by its inhabitants in sustaining, or more generally repulsing, sieges; its history reads like that of an English *Saragossa*. Sweyn could make no impression upon it until a traitor opened its gates; William of Normandy, after an investment of eighteen days, only found admittance owing to the fall of a portion of the walls; it capitulated to Stephen after a siege of three months; Sir William Courtenay was unable to effect an entrance, when the Duke of Clarence and the Earl of Warwick lay within the walls, before they had made their escape to the Continent; Perkin Warbeck had no chance of success with such valiant defenders; the insurgent peasantry, in 1549, were detained outside the walls until the royal troops arrived and scattered them to the winds; Sir John Berkeley and his cavaliers marched out with the honours of war in 1646, and the only shameful conclusion to an investment occurred three years earlier, when Prince Maurice compelled the Earl of Stamford to capitulate and march out *without* the honours of war. The occupation of Exeter during the Civil Wars was marked by two events—the beheading of the loyal Colonel Penruddocke, of Compton, in the Castle-yard, and the profanation of the Cathedral. The filthy practices committed in the grand old church are too disgusting to be narrated; but we read that "the levellers and Independents" burned the Prayer-books at the altar, converted the church into a store- and guard house, where they kept their ammunition and powder. "They destroyed all the glass windows, and struck off the heads of all the statues on all the monuments; they brake down the organ" (then the finest instrument in England), "and taking two

or three hundred pipes with them, in a most scornful and contemptuous manner went up and down the streets, piping on them; and meeting with some of the choristers of the church, whose surplices they had stolen before, and employed them to base servile offices, scoffingly told them, 'Boyes, we have spoyled your trade; you must goe and sing hot puddins pyes.' They took down the gates of the Close, which gates they employed to help forward and strengthen their fortifications. They laid intolerable taxes on most of the members of the church, and whosoever refused to submit to these most unjust and illegable impositions were threatened to have their houses plundered and their persons sent on shipboard, where they must expect usage as bad as at Algiers or the galleys. Of the canons' houses, some they convert into prisons, and others they employ as hospitals for sick or maimed soldiers; and for the Bishop's palace, they might have called it Smithfield, for in and about it they kept their fat oxen and sheep, and all their plundered provisions." A curious fact, illustrative of the state of the period, is recorded of the formation of the Close in 1286, which was permitted by Edward I. in consequence of the murder of the preceptor by the citizens in the open space before the cathedral.

The castle first erected by King Athelstan was strengthened or rebuilt on Rougemont Hill, as a matter of military policy, by William I., and the protection it afforded to the city was an early cause of the growth of the city, which in the thirteenth century is described by Richard of Devizes as "*clara metallis*," owing to its contiguity to the Cornish mines. But its position was still more materially promoted by the translation of the ancient See of Devon from Crediton to its ancient collegiate church. In modern times trade and manufactures have elevated towns into a prominent rank, but in the period anterior to the development of our commercial resources and relations, the cathedral or minster conferred importance upon our towns, not only from the dignity which it conveyed, but from the large employment of artificers on their buildings, and of labourers on their lands. Githa, the mother of King Harold, found a refuge here after the battle of Hastings, and, accompanied by many sympathizing friends in Exeter, made her escape to Flanders. In the seventeenth century another unfortunate queen was received in the person of Henrietta, and her daughter who bore her name was born in the deanery. Charles I. in the following year passed through the town. Royal visitors are duly chronicled by Dr. Oliver. King John and Queen Isabella, Edward I. and Queen Eleanor, who came to keep Christmas in the palace; Henry VI., who was conducted through the streets lined with tapestry and silken hangings, and welcomed by incense burned before him, a ceremony which was adopted at Lincoln several years later, on the occasion of the arrival of Henry VIII., whose unfortunate bride, Catherine of Arragon, passed through Exeter in 1501. Edward IV. presented to the Mayor a sword of state, which is still preserved; but Richard III., less kingly in his behaviour, graciously accepted from that civic functionary a purse of two hundred nobles. Henry VII., in acknowledgment of the resistance offered to Perkin Warbeck, presented a sword to the Mayor; and this sword, and the one presented by Edward IV., Sir Samuel Meyrick pronounced to be "the only swords of our early English kings in existence." The original cap of maintenance, made of felt, which he gave at the same time, is also still preserved. Cosmo de' Medici, the Grand Duke of Tuscany, has

left on record his admiration of the beauty of the services in the cathedral, which are still deservedly admired, and perhaps more fully attended than in any other cathedral in England. William III., however, was not permitted to judge of their excellence, although he sat himself in the bishop's throne with his usual good feeling, even if it could be believed that Lord Macaulay's idol had the scantiest estimation for the beauty of religious worship; for when he came into the cathedral, attended by a military guard, the canons would not enter their stalls, and the choirmen and choristers precipitately left the church: when Burnet commenced to read the "Declaration." No incident of interest is connected with the visit of Charles II.; but Dr. Oliver or his editor should have made the list of kingly visitors complete by mentioning the stay of George III. and Queen Charlotte in the deanery.

"Doncaster," Southey said, "was fortunate in that it did not return members to Parliament." The representatives of Exeter, with two exceptions, those of Sergeant Maynard and Sir W. Follett, are not likely to become historic; Heath and Coleridge, both judges, are its only two recorders of any note; Hoker and Izaake, the local antiquaries, its only two civic worthies deserving mention. Those who are interested in civic politics and canal-making will find Chapter VI., the "History of the Haven of Exeter," to their liking.

The staple trade of Exeter consisted in its wool, and "Exeter cloths" were long famous in the markets of Spain. The construction of a haven or canal, for which an Act of Parliament was passed in 1539, is said to be the earliest instance of artificial inland navigation in this country. In 1695, a mint was established here in Hele's Hospital, Mint Lane. It was not until the seventeenth century that any attention was paid to the ventilation of houses, the draining, cleansing, and lighting the streets, or providing a supply of river-water. In 1695, the only lights exhibited were between November 1 and February 2, when every inhabitant was bound, and then only on dark nights, to "set forth a light at his door until nine of the clock in the night;" and, in 1641, the only police regulation consisted in an order that "all the inhabitants should have a club, or some other fitting weapon, in readiness, for the preservation of the peace." In 1695, for the first time, an engine was erected in the New Mill Leett, to force water through wooden pipes for the service of the inhabitants; and it was not until the year 1808 that iron pipes supplanted these rude contrivances. The five ancient city gates have been destroyed, two having been removed in the last, and three in the present century; the finest of them all having been swept away, and happily its horrible prison with it, in 1819. In 1727, the shock of an earthquake was felt in all the houses of Exeter. It is singular that Dr. Oliver should have omitted the curious legend which has been alluded to by Shakespeare:

"King Richard III. Richmond: when last I was at Exeter,  
The Mayor, in courtesy, showed me the Castle,  
And called it Rougemont. At which name I started;  
Because a bard of Ireland told me once,  
I should not live long after I saw Richmond."

Like Dover, Windsor, and Peel Castles, that of Exeter contained a collegiate church. It is observable, that Exeter Castle is not mentioned in Domesday, but the exception is not without parallel in the cases of Dover, Nottingham, and Durham, and even of the Tower of London itself. Oxford undergraduates were in the habit of quizzing the procession of the Mayor to Carfax church on Sundays, as a poor travesty of the

Vice-Chancellor's state on his way to St. Mary's; in fact, one of those injured functionaries in despair wished that factories could take the place of all the colleges, and grimy hands and clothes of black gowns and trencher-caps. The Mayor of Exeter had only a Dean and Chapter to contend with, and so, in 1708, an agreement was drawn up by the high consenting parties, that "the sword was to be carried erect, and the cap of maintenance worn before the Mayor, on entering or leaving the choir" of the cathedral, on condition that he came in time; but he covenanted that his dearly beloved insignia should be set at his right side during the whole service. Dr. Oliver does not inform us whether the civic archives record any instance of a Mayor under such circumstances arriving after the service had commenced. The Guildhall, the scene of the civic pomp, is really an interesting building of the fifteenth century, and contains some interesting portraits. The scanty extracts from the Court rolls induce us to regret that they are so few, for these records would throw considerable light on the misdoings of mediæval tradesmen.

In the reign of Edward I. John de Mares-tail was fined for cursing in the presence of the Bailiffs, by wishing that Stephen of London had all his teeth drawn, and were sent to a certain place which the court-divines of the time of George II. would not mention in the Chapel Royal, St. James. Shoddy and devil's-dust, alum and chicory, are the evils of our domestic commissariat; but in the time of Edward III. a woman was fined for putting "burle and teselton in griseo;" several offenders were arrested on a charge of adulteration, by the introduction of "flocum in candelis Parisiensibus in deceptionem populi;" and bakers gave short weight. After all, we are no worse, we hope better, than our forefathers. One or two little historic notes of interest occur interspersed with those which relate to the subject matter of the work. If it is new and curious information that the German Emperors wore a triple crown, one of silver as Kings of Germany, a second of iron as Kings of Lombardy, and a third of gold as Kings of Rome, the following is yet more remarkable: Queen Elizabeth's death, on March 24, 1603, did not transpire in Ireland until April 9; and the news of the battle of Barnet, fought April 14, 1471, did not reach Cornwall until nine days after.

In conclusion, we heartily wish that every city in England was provided with such a history as Exeter now possesses, and that some of the writers of the day would devote their attention to the topography of their native towns and even villages with the same zeal which they display in recording researches pursued—

"Even to the frozen ridges of the Alps,  
Or any other ground inhabitable,  
Wherever Englishman durst set his foot."

#### THE SEVEN SONS OF MAMMON.\*

THE change which comes over poetry with advancing civilization has been matter of common remark. All of us know how society, as it becomes more complex and refined, delights less in poets who deal in incident and narrative, and more in those who restrict themselves to minute investigations of thought and subtle analysis of character. The proofs of this are patent and innumerable. Not to go back to ballads—the *Iliad*, the *Cid*, or *Cherry Chase*—

\* *The Seven Sons of Mammon. A Story.* By George Augustus Sala. Three Vols. (Tinsley.)

take down John Dryden, read *Cymon and Iphigenia* or *Theodore and Honoria*, and then open your Tennyson, and as you peruse *The Two Voices* or *Locksley Hall*, try to measure the immense change in taste of which the contrast gives you evidence—from the age which wants to read a story and the poet who wants to tell one, to the age which prefers a microscopic description of feelings and motives, and the poet who makes it his aim to exhibit them. If you are at all inclined to sigh over the alteration, you had better do so as privately as possible, else your Oxonian son will probably snub you as a fogey hopelessly behind the age, and your recently "finished" daughter will deplore your insensibility to the Beautiful, and doubt your possession of a soul.

But what business has all this at the outset of an article on a popular novel? Why just this: that a careful observer may note a change coming over fiction analogous to that which has come over poetry. The tendency of both is to drop continuous narrative, and rely on isolated description. The novelist of course addresses himself to a more varied and perhaps a somewhat lower circle than the poet. Where, therefore, the latter depends on his delineation of some fancy or some emotion, the former betakes himself rather to a well-grouped scene or a carefully-photographed character. In either case, in either craft we miss the excellence of other days—the construction of a good plot.

The great leader in the movement against telling good stories, and in favour of making the plot of no more account in comparison with the scenes it connects than the wire round a bouquet, in comparison with its flowers, is Mr. Thackeray. On the other hand, in spite of his many extravagancies, his improbabilities, his carelessness, we do hearty homage to Mr. Wilkie Collins for his adherence to the good old principle of putting plot before everything. Dickens and Bulwer Lytton have always possessed this secret of strength; but among the great majority of our rising novelists the defect of which we speak is almost an epidemic.

Here, for example, is a new book by Mr. George Augustus Sala, and an uncommonly clever and pleasant book too, but destitute of the directness and unity which are essential to a good story. In this respect it deteriorates as it goes on. There is much less of straightforward narrative in the third volume than in its predecessors, and a much stronger tendency to plunge into innumerable digressions, especially of that style which Mr. Thackeray brought into vogue; of taking a reader by the button-hole and looking into his face, and making a personal appeal to him. Mr. Sala's preface suggests an apology which is derived from a like source. He tells us that *The Seven Sons of Mammon* is not to be judged as a whole; that its very title in that case would be a misnomer, for of four of the sons it tells us next to nothing; that if it meet with the public favour, he shall continue it; and that he has designed it "on the model of an American *table d'hôte*, where the guests may drop in as they choose, eat their fill, go away, or come back again as the humour takes them." This is a smart plea for a careless style of writing. Mr. Thackeray's "Marquis of Steyne" is immediately cited as an example of the successful reproduction of a character. But we could find a great many warnings to set over against this encouragement. If people have continued to find amusement in the "Marquis of Steyne," they have grown mortally sick of "Mr. Arthur Pendennis." From *Don Quixote* to *Tom Brown*, the arguments against sequels may be counted by scores.

It is, we suppose, in pursuance of the same idea, that there should exist a kind of interdependence among all the works of the same author, that Mr. Sala has taken to keeping a set of stock proper names, such as St. Beekets-bury, Shrimington-super-mare, Onze-port, &c. Some, indeed, of his names, such as Lady Madapolam, are somewhat awkward and un-euphonic; of others, such as Biffin, he is so enamoured, that he is constrained to bestow them, in the same book, on people perfectly distinct, and in no way connected with each other. Is it unfair to suggest that this is a little aping of the way in which Mr. Thackeray and Mr. Anthony Trollope are perpetually writing about Diddlesex and Barseshire? Even in reading Mr. Thackeray, we have often had to console ourselves with the reflection that a great writer must know what is funny far better than we do, and that it must therefore be exquisitely amusing to call a fast man of any period Mr. Deuceace, and a governess in any family Miss Wirt. But this weak and affected mannerism, wearisome in its originators, is positively nauseous in their imitators.

A little more self-reliance and originality would keep Mr. Sala clear of the faults we have hinted at above. He seems himself to be in greater fear of the accusation of describing improbable persons and events. All through his three volumes there is a nervous sensitiveness on this point. He shows his disbelief in critics very much as a school-boy does in ghosts—by whistling very loud, and boasting that he doesn't care for them. Well, for our own parts, we should not direct this charge against the portions of the story for which Mr. Sala seems especially to dread it. We know that a state of society like that in which we live must contain much that is grotesque, mysterious, and exceptional. It would, in the face of all the strange criminal disclosures of the last twenty years, be unfair to demur to the possibility of such characters as Florence Armytage, or her father, or Mr. Sims, or Ephraim Twigg. What a select confederacy of forgers and assassins may do, very few of us are in a position to state; and therefore they are just as likely to behave in the way described by Mr. Sala as in any other. But there are passages in *The Seven Sons of Mammon* to which we may apply the touchstone of common sense and ordinary information. Take, for example, the account of Ruthyn Pendragon. He is an Evangelical curate of considerable talent, and who has gained University distinctions. He is driven from his curacy on account of his presumption in making an offer to a damsel of high degree, entertaining what Mr. Disraeli calls "exalted notions on church matters." He comes to London, and tries by every means to turn his talents to account in the way of a mastership or tutorship. All his efforts are unsuccessful. Masters, according to Mr. Sala, are required to be perfectly conversant with Hebrew, Tamil, and Hindostani, to play on the harmonium, and to assume the charge of the boys during school-hours, for twenty pounds per annum. So this energetic scholar is driven to take refuge in a model lodging-house, and to live on the sale of his college prizes. Now we overrate Mr. Sala's shrewdness if he be not himself aware that this is very ridiculous rubbish. Whatever of truth or fairness there may be in the outcry against cramming, against the multiplicity of tutors, and against the high pressure of their teaching, it at least attests to one thing—that in the present day, when nearly every intelligent lad wants to be qualified for some examination or other, the market value of a good education stands exceptionally high. A clever Cambridge graduate, with good health



and character, and a desire to work, is in no more danger of starvation than Baron Rothschild. The fact is, that Mr. Sala wanted to delineate a model lodging-house, and the varied company there to be found, and he thought a poor scholar would form an effective figure in the foreground.

For in truth this novel is a huge field of patch-work. Just as desperate undergraduates have been heard to declare on the eve of an examination, that, irrespectively of the questions which might be set, they would contrive to put all they knew down on their paper, Mr. Sala seems to have determined to throw together, somehow, the information he possessed on a number of incongruous subjects. Of course the publication of the story in the pages of *Temple Bar* increased the temptation to this sort of writing—legitimately and successfully practised by Mr. Sala in such a series of isolated sketches as *Twice Round the Clock*. Thus the heroine, Florence Armytage, exerts, by the possession of some forged cheques, a certain hold over the "Mammon" of the book. For his eldest son, an Indian officer, she entertains a kind of jealous and vindictive attachment. By some exercise of her power, she forces him to become a lay brother in a convent in Louvain, and afterwards a guard employed to watch over some convicts at a port in the South of France. No reason can be found for these proceedings, except that the first supplies opportunity for an essay on the wars in the Low Countries, their peasantry, their monasteries, and their barons; while the second is made a vehicle for giving us a good deal of information touching the treatment of criminals in France. All very well written and entertaining, we admit, but still so evidently lugged in by the head and shoulders. Had Mr. Sala been intimately acquainted with the great wall of China, we doubt not he would have represented this unfortunate officer as forced by his persecutress to sit upon it for a certain number of months; and then we should have had some charming sketches of Chinamen and Tartars, and a slight dissertation on the various dynasties which have ruled that country. Every chapter in the book has some cleverness, but then it wants coherence with what precedes and follows it. Mr. Sala's volumes bear the same relation to a really able novel, that the comparative view of mountains or public buildings at the beginning of an atlas does to a good map or plan—the snow may be accurately coloured, or the outlines carefully sketched; but we know that Vesuvius should not elbow Chimborazo, and that St. Paul's does not dwell in the shadow of the Great Pyramid.

Still we repeat that the bits, as bits, of this book show great talent. Nay, whatever else Mr. Sala may be, he is never dull; and his work for the moment carries one on in spite of—almost in oblivion of—its faults. The account of Mrs. Caesar Donkin's boarding-house is in the best manner of Dickens; and the convict portion, however unconnected with the rest, does certainly absorb one for the time in an ordinarily repulsive and unfamiliar subject. Probably no reader of Mr. Sala ever saw French prisoners fed; but every one will feel the following description must be lifelike, just as we can tell whether a photograph be good even though we may not know the person or place whom it depicts:—

"It was noon, and a clock struck, the great clock of the yard, followed by a score of ill-conditioned horologes, from the churches and public buildings in the town, and that seemed to whine and grumble while they proclaimed the hour. And then the great bell of the *bogues* began to toll. It was for no man's death. It was only for dinner.

"Such a dinner! The felons came trooping from their labours, scrambling over piles of wood, clumsily clambering from boats, clanking along in their chain-gangs. The guards followed them up closely, making their canes felt if the wretches straggled or exchanged any conversation. It was Francois Vireloque's duty to be last; and last he slouched into the inner yard of the *bagne*,—they had to pass through half-a-dozen ere they reached their refectory,—and saw each heavy gate locked by the *porteclefs* after him.

"Such a dinner, and such a dining-room! It must be granted that the repast was an *al fresco* one; for between the four white walls of the prison-yard the fierce sun poured down its wrath on the creatures condemned to dine without shade. The sun made so many blazing lakes of a series of huge tubs filled with Heaven knows what sickening hell-broth of herbs and hot water; only I know that large marigolds floated on the surface, and that here and there a bone, with a scrap of gristle attached to it, bobbed up and down, and that the whole distilled a rank and acrid perfume. Each convict as he entered the yard took a tin pannikin from a rack, and a lump of black bread from a basket, over which a *garde-chiourme* kept guard. Then if he belonged to mess number one, he went to tub number one, and if to mess number two, to the corresponding tub, and there fell to like a wild beast. I say, like a wild beast—or rather like some caged hyena that yells and crunches over his shin-bone of horse-flesh. The creatures crowded round the tubs and fought and cursed for places. The weakest went to the wall; the timid criminal had his lump of bread wrenched from him by the stronger hands of the athletic scoundrel. Some positively bit at one another, or shuffled their chained legs against them to gall their sides. They baled canfuls of abomination from the seething slough that was called soup; they splashed and scalded one another, now in horse-play, now in spite; they screamed over a chance piece of flesh, and battled for it till their callous hands were slippery; they licked the precious drops of grease that had fallen on their sleeves; and when from time to time some fiercer contest than ordinary over a meaty bone converted the scramble into a fray, the guards swooped down upon them, and bent them off with their *badines*.

"Pretty animals, *n'est-ce pas, mon gars?*" was the observation of le Sieur le Camus to his comrade Vireloque. "You would not see a more charming sight in the Jardin des Plantes at feeding time."

"They are not like human beings," his companion said.

"*Ma foi!* they are like just what they are. A *forçat* is a *forçat*. In this place, my friend, one grows only to care for the *stricte nécessaire*, and their soup and bread is all in all to them. After all, shall we not relish our *ganelle* of haricots when *ces messieurs* have dined? My stomach says yes unmistakably. See, the repast is at an end. The lambs are going to drink."

But though Mr. Sala does contrive to make his book interesting, we are bound to observe that he chooses some rather trite topics. We have really had so much of the French Police lately, that we wish the novelists would give them a little rest. The Derby-day, again, has been described so very often, that its omission would be a relief to most of us. Another and a more unpleasant feature about the book, is its personality. We suppose there are some people who like to read rapid gossip about leading men, and who will feel that it exercises their ingenuity to penetrate the very thin veil which Mr. Sala throws over such characters as the Earl of Carnarvon; but this is a sort of taste which is pretty abundantly ministered to by the London correspondents of third-rate provincial newspapers, and the caterers for which may find their great prototype in Miss Carolina Wilhelmina Amelia Skeggs describing Sir Tomkin drawing his sword and the Duke asking Jernigan for his garters.

Nor can we congratulate Mr. Sala on an entire superiority to cant. The title and the tone of his book alike show one form of it.

"See," he says in effect, "what desperate rascals these capitalists are; or at best what selfish, unfeeling knaves. What a nuisance and abomination these wealthy men are altogether." Now this is only a coarser form of the old fallacy, which was put rather well in a poem, published some century since, which set forth how wealth was accumulating and man decaying; and came down somewhat heavily on Trade's unfeeling train. Then the principles of the Peace Society are proclaimed in another place, through the medium of a very wordy and feeble expansion of the respectable old prize-poem sentiment, about one murder making a villain, and millions a hero.

As to style, Mr. Sala is also far from irreproachable. He is a deal too fond of tessellating his pages with French words. And while we object to the quantity of his French, we cannot speak highly of the quality of such English as "there was then no local papers." It is also evident that Mr. Sala considers a person's seventh lustre to be his seventieth year; whence he may deduce to his profit, that it is playing with edge-tools to make use of classical words or allusions which you don't understand. His humour also is sometimes rather melancholy. It is not an egregious joke to say that a man who ordered the door to be shut, was afraid of draughts, except hot, with spices and sugar.

To sum up—*The Seven Sons of Mammon* is worth anybody's reading, but it is not a good novel. Mr. Sala has the making of a capital novelist in him, but he is far from being one yet.

#### A PAGE OF PRUSSIAN HISTORY.\*

GEORGE HESKIEL may fairly be termed the German Thornbury; for, like that gentleman, he "produces a little book a week, and a three-volume novel every month." While equally prolific, however, Heskiel is decidedly more artistic than his English rival, and his works rarely display any signs of haste or negligence. They are written pleasantly and grammatically, and though possibly flimsy in their texture, they afford very sedative reading in the companionship of a pipe during an idle hour. We cannot say whether the book we have now under notice is the last of his literary progeny, for his name is attached to no less than five works in the latest number of the German publishers' circular; but, at any rate, it offers a characteristic notion of his style. It is a work about adventurers of all ages and lands, strangely jumbled together, and offering much already familiar to English readers, combined with other passages of history not so well known. Passing over, therefore, the chapters devoted to Cagliostro, St. Germain, the Man with the Iron Mask, &c., we will narrate from Heskiel's pages the life of a very remarkable adventurer, which, we think, will supply additional material to our Fritzian literature.

Toward the end of August, 1718, the Evangelical Bishop of Grand Poland and Prussia, Court-preacher Jablonski, then residing at Berlin, received a remarkable letter, dated from Baruth, and written by a perfect stranger to him, in which the writer requested the Bishop to hand a letter enclosed to King Frederick William I. The writer, who signed himself John Michael von Klement (Klement), declared that he would make the Bishop responsible for the consequences, if he did not deliver the document to his Prussian Majesty. Such is the account Pöllnitz gives us of the

\* *Abenteuerliche Gesellen*. Von Georg Heskiel. (Berlin: Gerschel.)

contents of the letter, in his Memoirs; and it is probable that it also contained sundry vague allusions to some danger that menaced the King. The Bishop hurried with this incendiary letter to his friend the Marshal von Bieberstein, who placed the enclosure in Frederick William's hands. The letter to the King, however, must have been far from explicit; for though it contained a promise of further explanations, Jablonski was ordered to start for Baruth, and demand the necessary information of the writer; but he found him remarkably reserved, and was only rendered the more alarmed by the little he let drop. On hearing this report, the King resolved to speak with the mysterious warner himself, and he was brought for that purpose to Berlin early in September. Pöllnitz tells us, that Frederick William went for his usual afternoon drive only accompanied by Major-General Forcade and two pages; and when dusk set in, proceeded alone to a garden near the Oranienburg gate, where he found Bishop Jablonski and Kleement. When the latter was left alone with the King, he told him that the Courts of Austria and Saxony were resolved to deal a heavy blow at Prussia. Berlin was to be carried by surprise, and the King, the Ministers, and the Treasury removed. According to Pöllnitz, he also added that the Crown Prince (afterwards Frederick the Great) would be educated in the Catholic Faith, and raised to the throne, under the guardianship of the Emperor. The plan for carrying off the King was drawn up by Count Flemming, the Saxon Minister, and Von Manteuffel, formerly Spanish Envoy at the Prussian Court. Prince Eugene was also a chief mover in the affair, and had carried on a correspondence with him (Kleement), telling him to arrange matters with Flemming, and fifteen thousand florins were paid monthly to secret agents, the money passing through the hands of Hohmann, a merchant at Leipzig, who had taken an oath of secrecy. Flemming had undertaken to obtain the consent of the English Court, and Prince Eugene had paid Wusterhausen, the engineer, one hundred ducats for a plan of Berlin. It was stated that twelve horsemen would be sufficient to carry off Frederick William.

In support of these horrifying statements, Kleement laid before the King letters from Prince Eugene and Count Flemming. One of the Prince's letters stated that the King had a set of bad fellows about him who betrayed him, and were prepared to deliver up their master and the Treasury for a moderate sum of money. In this way Kleement caused the King to feel suspicious of his *entourage*, while the frequent mention of the Treasury was well adapted to make the saving monarch uncomfortable. Finally, Kleement declared that his aversion from the Catholic religion urged him to make this statement. He intended to join the Reformed Church, and begged the King to keep his revelation a profound secret. This confession made the deepest impression on Frederick William, who was naturally prone to suspicion, and Kleement's firmness effected the rest. Still, he was not quite prepared to believe such atrocious statements without further proof. He certainly looked at the letters handed him; but was unable to read them owing to the darkness, and therefore arranged for a second meeting on the following day. He was, however, most uneasy, only answered General de Forcade's questions with a heavy sigh, and threatened his companions with death if they dared to reveal that he had left his carriage. The King then retired to his apartments, where he admitted nobody, not even the Queen. The next day he had ano-

ther meeting with Kleement in the garden, and tested the letters the latter laid before him. Frederick William, who was acquainted with the handwriting of both Prince Eugene and Count Flemming, considered them genuine, and therefore believed the extraordinary tale. Kleement's behaviour may have confirmed the King in his belief, for Pöllnitz tells us that his Majesty, who regarded Kleement as his saviour, offered him twelve thousand dollars, which the other declined, because as yet he had not earned them. According to the statement of Von Wilhelm, the Saxon Secretary of Legation, however, Kleement really received from the grateful monarch a present of seven thousand dollars, and a further sum of two thousand ducats, with which to continue his discoveries. Kleement completely won the King's favour by going over to the Reformed Church, and received as reward the order *de la générosité*. He cannot have remained long in Berlin, for on September 21, 1718, he wrote a letter to the King from Cleves, in which he confirmed his former statements, and added that he had been compelled to make this journey by the orders of Prince Eugene; that the Prince had correspondents in all the Prussian towns, and had received assurances of a general insurrection; moreover, the project for the administration of Prussia, after the removal of the King, was already approved. Before we describe the effect which this man's revelations produced on the King, it will be as well to give some details as to his past career.

John Michael von Kleement was born on June 7, 1689, at Neusohl, in Hungary, and according to his own statement, his father was Martin von Kleement, assessor and judge of the county of Neusohl. This statement was probably correct, though the sister of Frederick the Great, in her memoirs, says it was supposed that Kleement was of noble birth. Some regarded him as a natural son of the King of Denmark, though the reasons are not given; others declared him a natural son of Philip d'Orléans, who certainly had plenty of natural children, and Kleement is said to have been very like him; but these are mere rumours, lacking any solid foundation. Kleement was indubitably a most talented man, and enjoyed a good education, for he said that he had studied at Frankfurt-on-the-Oder and Halle. This is possible, as the Protestant Hungarians visited Protestant Universities, and to this fact may be ascribed his intimate knowledge of Prussian affairs. At the age of eighteen he entered, as adjutant and chamberlain, the service of Prince Racoczi, who waged war against the Emperor up to the year 1711. In his official capacity Kleement declared that he several times visited Berlin to execute commissions, not only for Racoczi, but also for France. This is not impossible, but in any case the negotiations did not lead to the desired result of Racoczi being supported by Prussia. More certain is it that Kleement appeared at the Utrecht Congress under the name of Baron von Rosenau, as an emissary of Racoczi, and entered into an intimacy with the Prussian representative, Count von Metternich. In 1715 Kleement carried out his first great coup by stealing all Racoczi's papers, and proceeding with them to Vienna. As a reward for this shameful treachery, Kleement received an imperial amnesty and a large reward, joined the Catholic Church, and was appointed to the *chancellerie* of Prince Eugene. According to some writers, he gave up this appointment because he was insufficiently paid; Weber, however, asserts that it was not voluntary on his part. Although the Prince never thoroughly explained the subject, it appears that

he really distrusted Kleement, but kept him in his service as useful in certain matters. Kleement proceeded to Paris and Brussels, whence he sent reports to Prince Eugene, which, however, remained unanswered. At the end of January 1718, he turned up at Dresden, under the name of Klesberg, and was introduced by a mutual friend to Count Flemming, who after the first interview said of him, "that no minister the Saxons had ever had at Vienna was so well acquainted with the Court." As negotiations of some importance were going on at that time between Austria and Saxony with reference to a marriage between the Electoral Prince and an Archduchess, Flemming was very anxious to obtain special knowledge of the course of events at Vienna. He hinted as much to Kleement, who promised to obtain him a secret correspondent in that capital. On this occasion our adventurer struck his second great blow, by swindling Count Flemming in an egregious manner. He wrote the Viennese correspondence himself, and drew large sums from the Saxon Court in payment. That he succeeded in deceiving the Saxon Minister so long, proves not only his talent, but that he was really well acquainted with what was going on at Vienna. In the summer of 1718 Kleement was offered a mission to the Austrian capital; but as he was assured that Flemming would discover the trick, he said that he was compelled to go to Holland on behalf of Prince Eugene; and would pass through Berlin, whence he would send a report to the Minister.

This suited Flemming admirably; for at the time there was a coolness between the Courts of Berlin and Dresden, and the Saxon Minister had heard of a treaty on foot between Prussia, Sweden, and Russia. He wanted to know the truth about this, and commissioned Kleement to find out all about it. It is probable that while discussing this and other affairs, Flemming spoke in very unfavourable terms of the King of Prussia, and possible that he alluded to the slight difficulty that would offer in carrying him off bodily. It is true that Flemming denied this, and we have only Kleement's assurance of it; but the latter adhered to his assertion, even at a time when falsehood could not benefit him. Kleement procured Flemming a secret correspondent at Berlin, in George Henry Lehmann, the Resident of Weimar, whose acquaintance he had formed shortly before at Leipzig Fair. Kleement wrote to Lehmann, who copied the report, and forwarded it to Flemming; and thus the Saxon Minister was cheated for the second time. Kleement certainly obtained from this paltry diplomatist, whose salary amounted to two hundred florins and a "Christmas present," much personal information; but Lehmann naturally picked up no diplomatic secrets. When Kleement started on his journey with a sum of six hundred dollars, and a cask of tokey, supplied by Flemming, he met Lehmann at Luckau, and talked to him about the scheme for carrying off the King of Prussia. Lehmann, who was a Prussian by birth, at first refused to have anything to do with the matter, but was at last brought over by small presents and large promises. Count Flemming proceeded to Vienna in September, where he began the negotiations that resulted in the alliance between Austria, Saxony, and Hanover, signed on January 5, 1719. Kleement, who had in the meanwhile been to Berlin, sent the Count a letter written in French, containing the harshest judgment of the King's character, and plenty of abuse and calumny. This letter was destined to be fatal to the writer. At this time, however, Flemming broke off his connection with our adventurer; for he discovered in Vienna how he had



been swindled, but he thought it wiser to hold his tongue: as he said to Prince Eugene, "Il était de notre prudence de cacher d'avoir été friponné." It is supposed that Kleement had cost the Saxon Court, from first to last, over ten thousand florins. Such was the career of a man who, with unexampled audacity, set to work to embroil the King of Prussia with the Courts of Vienna and Dresden, cause him to feel the deepest suspicions of his immediate entourage, and who yet managed to crawl out of the lion's den, richly rewarded.

Pöllnitz and all the other authorities inform us that Frederick William, after hearing Kleement's communication, became very gloomy and reserved: he always slept with a brace of pistols at his bedside, kept his usual companions at a distance, and only invited citizens to dinner at Potsdam. Hereupon, the Prince of Anhalt, the "old Dessauer," resolved at all hazards to discover the cause of the remarkable change in the King; he therefore followed him one day into his private apartments. Frederick William, who suspected the Prince as well as the rest, quickly grasped his sword on seeing him. The old Dessauer at once drew his own, threw it far from him, fell on his knees, and implored the King, with tears and assurances of his unswerving fidelity, to reveal to him the cause of his sorrow. The King was moved, and imparted to him Kleement's confessions. The Prince, convinced that they were false, urged the King, if possible, to recall Kleement to Berlin, and thoroughly investigate the affair. Frederick William sent Bishop Jablonski and Marshal von Biberstein to Amsterdam to see Kleement; but he stuck to his story, and revealed the names of the persons in Berlin who were traitors to the King, and received pensions from Austria. The most distinguished among them were: General von Grumbkow, Privy Counsellors von Kreutz and von Alvensleben, Prince Leopold of Anhalt-Dessau, President von Danckelmann, &c. Moreover, Kleement expressed his readiness to return to Berlin, and he really succeeded once again in deceiving the King by his coolness. He repeated his statements, and appealed to the letters of the Prince Eugene; but as these were at the Hague, and the person who held them would only deliver them to himself, the impostor actually received permission to go and fetch them. It is evident that Frederick William still put faith in Kleement, in spite of the old Dessauer's assurances, for he had the accused parties closely watched, took several precautionary measures, and had letters stopped in the post-office: he also let Ilgen, his minister, into the secret, and sent Baron von Knyphausen, under the name of Tempelberg, to Vienna, to observe Prince Eugene and Count Flemming.

It is perfectly inexplicable why the cunning impostor, after remaining about a month in Holland, returned to Prussia instead of seeking safety in flight. It is probable that he trusted too strongly to the impression he had made on the King. Strange to say, though, while himself re-entering the lion's den, he gave his subordinate, Lehmann, a hint, which the latter availed himself of, and fled to Dresden. When Kleement arrived at Cleves, he was arrested by Colonel Forrester, and conveyed to Berlin in the early part of December, 1718. An hour after his arrival Lieut.-General von Schwendy appeared at the head of twenty gendarmes, and removed him to the fortress of Spandau. This did not fail to produce a sensation in Berlin, for no one knew who the stout gentleman was in the Hungarian fur-coat with the star. In Spandau Kleement was closely watched; only the Commandant was allowed to speak with him; but he was still treated

respectfully, had his meals sent from the Royal kitchen, and was served on silver. During his examination, at which the King was present, he adhered to his statements, and behaved so cleverly, that the King once again believed him. On December 9, 1718, all the gates of Berlin were suddenly locked; all the mails and passengers were detained; no persons, not even the farmers who had come into town with corn, were allowed to leave the city; patrols traversed the streets; and several of the persons denounced as traitors by Kleement, or such as had become suspicious through their correspondence, were arrested. Among these was Professor von Danckelmann of Halle, who was taken to Spandau, but released a few days later, and compensated by three hundred dollars a year being added to his salary.

The King, however, even went further. On December 14 he had the apartments of the Saxon Resident, Von Wilhelm, broken open during his absence, and all his letters removed. Two days after he told the Resident that he was still a friend of the King of Poland; but Field-Marshal Count Flemming and the Minister, Baron Manteuffel, had formed a very dangerous conspiracy against him, and he had expected to come on the trail of it by seizing the papers. As a natural result, this brusque conduct gave rise to long diplomatic discussions, and eventually the King sent a protest to the Saxon Court against the Ministers Von Flemming and Manteuffel. At the same time, Baron von Knyphausen had finished his mission to Vienna, and handed to Prince Eugene a letter of protest in Frederick William's own handwriting.

At Dresden the Court felt as if they had fallen from the clouds, and understood nothing about the affair, while Prince Eugene at Vienna was most indignant at being thought capable of such villany. Couriers flew between Warsaw, Dresden, Vienna, and Berlin; despatches and reports crossed and followed each other; the whole diplomatic world was in a state of excitement. In short, Kleement had managed to produce an unparalleled imbroglio. For the impostor himself, however, matters took a far from satisfactory turn. In spite of all exertions, no conspiracy could be detected; the King grew impatient, and started for Wusterhausen, and by a judicious threat of torture, Kleement was prevailed upon to confess that the entire story of a conspiracy was an invention of his own, and a monstrous fable. At first Kleement tried to thrust the invention on to Flemming, who had forced him to play the part of a denouncer; but he soon gave this up, and openly confessed that all his statements were false, and that the letters he had produced were written by himself. He was cast into irons, but the King was still far from being at ease. He felt savage at Flemming's remarks about him, and insisted on the extradition of Lehmann. When the Courts of Vienna and Dresden discovered what it was all about, they grew pacified, and assented to Kleement being tried at Berlin. Frederick William had previously expressed his regret to Prince Eugene and the Saxon Minister at what had occurred; the hapless Lehmann was handed over, and all settled amicably. When all this was arranged, Kleement's examination was begun, on March, 1719; but there was soon a hitch in the matter, for the clever fellow managed to set the King all adrift again. Frederick William began to doubt the truth of Kleement's confession, and thought that he wished to exculpate the compromised Courts of Vienna and Dresden, in order that they might take his part. At this moment the Court of Dresden played its last trump card by

sending to Berlin Kleement's original report to Flemming, written on his first arrival in that capital. Frederick William had it read to him, and the impression produced by the impostor's abusive calumnies was tremendous. In a most furious passion the King hurried to Spandau, and we can imagine how stormy was the interview he had with the impostor. The latter could not deny the authenticity of the letter, and this confession sealed his fate. It was not till December 16, 1719, that Lehmann was confronted with Kleement, and in his last examination the latter repeated his confession fully, and desired to take the sacrament in confirmation. Finally, he begged Lehmann's pardon for having brought misfortune on him: the latter shook him by the hand, and entreated that his Majesty would spare his life, as he had acted in ignorance. The sentence passed on the two culprits bears date January 20, 1720, and Kleement's was to the effect that as a punishment for his enormous crimes, he should be dragged to the scaffold in a slaughterer's cart, have his arm twice pinched with red-hot tongs on the way, and then be finished with a rope. Lehmann's sentence was even more severe than Kleement's, because he was a born subject of his Majesty. He was, like his fellow-prisoner, to be twice pinched with red-hot pincers, then beheaded, his head placed on a separate post, his body quartered and attached to the gallows. As the Courts of Vienna and Dresden approved of the sentence, it was speedily carried out. On the day before his execution, Kleement expressed his penitence in a dignified letter written in French, and we may fairly assume that his repentance was sincere.

Thus Kleement finished his adventurous career: but Frederick William is reported to have said, "This man, on account of his good sense and learning, might have made his fortune with me had he only been an honest fellow!" Is it certain that the affair produced the deepest impression on the King—an impression that was never entirely obliterated, and which was to a great extent the cause of his future behaviour to the Crown Prince. Even though he gave up his suspicion of individuals, a general distrust remained in the Monarch's mind, and was combined in a most peculiar manner with a species of affection for Kleement. The cheated King was probably the only man who sincerely regretted the impostor. He did not like to allude to the affair, but when he did so it never took place without a striking recognition of the man's remarkable talent.

It has been asserted that a portrait of Kleement is preserved in the palace of Berlin; but, in spite of a lengthened search, our author states that he has been unable to discover it. As there is abundant testimony to its existence, it is possible that it was removed on some occasion to one of the other palaces.

Although we have purposely selected this sketch, as supplying a supplementary chapter to Carlyle's *Frederick the Great*, we are bound to add that Heseckel's two volumes offer a very interesting picture-gallery of German adventurers, whose career is but little known in this country. We may especially mention the chapter devoted to Philip von Königsmark, in which M. Heseckel chivalrously attempts to shield the honour of Sophia Dorothea. Even though our opinion has remained unchanged after the perusal of it, we are bound to express our thanks to the author for having collected so many sources of information, which will prove of value to other researchers in the same interesting field. It would certainly be a grand achievement to overthrow the conclusion to which Mr. Thackeray arrives in the first of his lectures on the Four Georges.

## SHORT NOTICE.

*The Wonders of the Invisible World.* By Cotton Mather, D.D. To which is added, *A Farther Account of the Tryals of the New England Witches.* By Increase Mather, D.D. (J. R. Smith.) In the dark pages of the history of popular fanaticism, or in the dismal and humiliating records of religious persecution, the treatment of witchcraft and supposed witches is entitled to a painful pre-eminence. Unlike the persecutions waged against each other by opposing creeds, there is no political influence to share the responsibility of the barbarities practised, and the tortures to which the victims of public superstition were subject were continued into an age when enlightenment was supposed to have asserted its sway over all ranks of the people, and conducted by men whose names are yet associated with astuteness of intellect and eminence of legal acquirements. It is scarcely conceivable that the same generation which saw the first issue of the *Spectator* could have witnessed tortures, at which humanity shudders, exercised upon helpless creatures for crimes which are now known to be wholly imaginary. Yet such was the case; and the wisest and most clear-sighted judges of the land presided over the trials of witches, and the most pious and the purest of divines applauded their punishment or witnessed their sufferings. In Protestant countries, as in England, Sweden, America, or the Lutheran portion of Germany, these persecutions reached their height, as the greater importance bestowed upon the verbal inspiration of the Bible by the Reformed Churches led them to attach greater weight to the allusions which occur in Scripture to the crime of witchcraft—allusions few in number, but of a ghastly importance, if we regard the crimes which have sprung from a misconception of their purport. The curious works which are contained in this valuable reprint throw the clearest light upon the extent to which the fanatical belief in witchcraft had spread in the Puritan state of New England, since known as Massachusetts. The authors, who stood to each other in the relation of father and son, were men of the highest reputation for learning and piety among the New England divines, and Increase Mather was the President of Harvard College. Both father and son appear to have been the staunchest believers in the crime of witchcraft; and when the supposed infection had spread so far as to render no life safe, and had thus brought about the natural reaction, they, though almost alone, persisted in their belief, and poured forth pathetic jeremiads over the infatuation which had seized upon men to spare this brood of Satan. The Governor of the new colony was at this time (1692) Sir William Phipps, and finding this belief shared in to so great an extent by men of such learning and unblemished piety as the Mathers, he yielded himself up entirely to the delusion, and lent the formal sanction of his name and station to all the prosecutions which were directed against the supposed witches. The progress of the excitement appears to have been precisely similar to what we find recorded in the accounts which survive of similar transactions in this or other European countries. Originally directed against helpless and aged women, whose only offences besides their helplessness were perhaps peevishness and grumbling, it rapidly involved in the charges all ranks and ages—women young and beautiful, clergymen, men of studious and philosophical habits, who had laid themselves open to suspicion by the avowal of their disbelief in the existence of witchcraft, and even children of the most immature years fell under this reproach, and expiated at the stake or the gibbet their supposed crimes. It will scarcely be credited that one of the supposed witches was a child of only four years of age. Once the suspicion directed against a person, or perhaps as we now know was often the case, from motives of personal spite, the conviction in New England was almost certain. Scores of witnesses could be found, many of them doubtless the victims of self-delusion, who were tortured with cramps and fits in which they vomited up crooked pins or nails, or gave the numberless other signs by which possession is denoted, the cause of all of which could be traced to the prisoner under examination; some had seen a toad on the hearth and thrown it into the fire,

when it immediately vanished, and the person suspected appeared at the door; another had, with a cudgel, belaboured a dog or other beast which disturbed his nocturnal repose, and the following morning the suspected man was complaining of pains in his shoulders; or, worst of all, some poor creature half mad with terror at the charges against her, bullied into a state of frantic fear by texts she could not understand, or evidence which it was impossible to disprove, as the fact of her being seen in one place in her natural body was no proof that in her capacity of witch she might not have been somewhere else, confessed, in the hope of obtaining mercy from that dreaded death by fire, that she had been a witch and had been present at the Sabbath, had seen the arch-enemy in the shape which at that moment he was most popularly supposed to assume, or that with which her imagination first presented her; then when pressed to mention whom she had there seen, very naturally those were first named upon whom suspicion had already alighted. There can be little doubt also that in some instances, by what curious psychological process it is difficult to guess, certain of these poor creatures became persuaded of their own guilt, and believed that they actually possessed the malignant power which was popularly ascribed to them. In less enlightened times than those in which the Mathers lived, chances of escape had been given to those accused of witchcraft. They might claim to be subjected to many tests. There was the ordeal of fire, which would not burn a witch, or of water, which would not drown her; they might be punctured by pins, and they would not bleed nor feel any pain (a witch-finder in Scotland, by this test, caused the death of some hundreds of innocent people by having a false pin, which was incapable of causing pain or fetching blood from any). A most favoured escape of all these was the weighing against the church Bible, which book no witch would be able to outweigh, and this test secured the escape of hundreds of persons accused of witchcraft in this country. But the Mathers saw in these devices inventions of the arch-enemy to secure the escape of his active instruments of ill, and they were all abolished. To such a pitch did this absurd belief in witches reach in Salem that at length dogs were accused and convicted of witchcraft, and executed for it. After a little time those who had been the most active in the persecutions got a glimpse of how little truth there was at the bottom of these charges, by finding themselves accused of the practices they had used so much cruelty to suppress. This led to a pause in the persecution, and when the wife of Sir William Phipps had been accused of witchcraft, the Governor withdrew the countenance he had given to the proceedings, and shortly after the bubble burst, and the people awoke from the nightmare sleep that had oppressed them almost as suddenly as they fell into it. The Mathers, however, persisted in their belief, and the treatises included in this volume were published by them in justification of these proceedings. They contain a narrative of some of the most important trials that took place, together with learned dissertations upon the nature of witchcraft, and the means of treating it. The signs by which a witch can be recognised are fully explained, and the objects of the Deity in tolerating their existence are reasoned upon. We cannot attempt to give to our readers a fuller insight into a book which, on many grounds, we recommend to their perusal. We will, however, give an extract or two from the trial of Susanna Martin, held at the Court of Oyer and Terminer at Salem, June 29, 1692, which will illustrate the character of the evidence upon which these poor creatures were executed.

"Susanna Martin, pleading *Not Guilty* to the Indictment of *Witchcraft*, brought in against her, there were produced the Evidences of many Persons very sensibly and grievously Bewitched, who all complained of the Prisoner at the Bar, as the Person whom they believed the cause of their Miseries. And now, as well as in the other Trials, there was an extraordinary Endeavour by *Witchcraft*, with Cruel and frequent Fits, to hinder the poor Sufferers from giving in their Complaints, which the Court was forced with much Patience to obtain, by much waiting and watching for it.

There was now also an account given of what passed at her first Examination before the Magistrates. The Cast of her Eye then striking the afflicted People to the Ground, whether they saw that Cast, or not; there were these among other Passages between the Magistrates and the Examinee.

"Magistrate. Pray, what all these People?—  
"Martin. I don't know.  
"Magistrate. But what do you think all them?  
"Martin. I don't desire to spend my Judgment upon it.  
"Magistrate. Don't you think they are bewitched?  
"Martin. No, I do not think they are.  
"Magistrate. Tell us your Thoughts about them then.  
"Martin. No, my thoughts are my own, when they are in; but when they are out they are another's. Their Master—  
"Magistrate. Their Master! Who do you think is their Master?  
"Martin. If they be dealing in the Black Art, you may know as well as I.  
"Magistrate. Well, what have you done towards this?  
"Martin. Nothing at all.  
"Magistrate. Why, is your own Appearance?  
"Martin. I cannot help it.  
"Magistrate. Is it not your Master? How comes your Appearance to hurt these?  
"Martin. How do I know? He that appeared in the Shape of Samuel, a glorified Saint, may appear in any one's Shape.

It was then also noted in her, as in others like her, that if the afflicted went to approach her, they were flung down to the Ground. And when she was asked the reason of it, she said, *I cannot tell; it may be, the Devil bears me more Malice than another.*

The Court accounted themselves, alarmed by these Things, to inquire further into the Conversation of the Prisoner; and see what there might occur, to render these Accusations further credible. Whereupon, John Allen of Salisbury testified, that he refusing, because of the weakness of his Oath, to Cart some Staves at the request of this Martin, she was displeased at it, and said, *It had been as good that he had; for his Oath should near be his much more Service.* Whereupon, this Dependent said, *Dart thou threaten me, thou old Witch! I'll throw thee into the Brook; which to avoid, she flew over the Bridge, and escaped.* But, as he was going home, one of his Oxen tired, so that he was forced to Unyoke him, that he might get him home. He then put his Oxen, with many more, upon Salisbury Beach, where Cattle did use to get Flesh. In a few days, all the Oxen upon the Beach were found by their Tracks, to have run into the Mouth of Merrimack-River, and not returned; but the next day they were found come ashore upon Plum Island. They that sought them used all imaginable gentleness, but they would still run away with a violence, that seemed wholly Diabolical, till they came near the mouth of Merrimack-River; when they ran right into the Sea, swimming as far as they could be seen. One of them then swam back again, with a swiftness amazing to the Beholders, who stood ready to receive him, and help up his tired Carcass. But the Beast ran furiously up into the Island, and from thence, through the Marshes up into Newbury Town, and so up into the Woods, and there after a while found near Newbury. So that of fourteen good Oxen, there were only the seven left. The rest were all cast up, some in one place, and some in another. Drowned.

Bernard Peache testified, That being in Bed, on the Lord's-day Night, he heard a scrambling at the Window, whereat he then saw Susanna Martin come in, and jump down upon the Floor. She took hold of this Dependent's Feet, and drew his Body up into a Heap, she lay upon him near Two Hours; in all which time, he could neither speak nor stir. At length, when he could begin to move, he laid hold on her Hand, and pulling it up to his Mouth, he bit three of her Fingers, as he judged, unto the bone. Whereupon she went from the Chamber, down the Stairs, out at the Door. This Dependent thereupon called unto the People of the House, to advise them of what passed; and he himself did follow her. The People saw her not; but there being a Buckets at the Left-hand of the Door, there was a drop of Blood found upon it, and several more drops of Blood upon the Snow newly fallen abroad. There was likewise the Print of her Feet just without the Threshold, but no more sign of any Footing further off.

## BOOKS ANNOUNCED.

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## FOREIGN CORRESPONDENCE.

FLORENCE, December 13.

ONCE again an attempt is about to be made to complete the fabric of the Florentine Cathedral. So many more or less strenuous and earnest attempts have from time to time, at long distant dates, been set on foot, and have ended in impotent discomfiture, that those are excusable who cannot be induced to have much faith in the success of the present tentative. But, to say nothing of other favourable changes in the circumstances of the times, and the disposition and tone of men's minds, it may be observed that the present is of course the first time that the work has been approached by united Italy. Italy may well be able to accomplish a work which was too arduous for little Tuscany; though the thought arises that the rearing of this mighty fabric was not once upon a time too great an achievement to be accomplished by the wool-staplers of Florence. But those were other times, when the most potent levers that could be brought to bear on human motives were of a different kind and order from those which are most efficient in moving them now. The "Ages of Faith" are past. Those may deplore the fact who deem that faith, which increased knowledge has destroyed, to have been a salutary and elevating one to humanity. And those whose minds are differently constituted may rejoice over it. But the result is undeniable by all—that no amount of effort and sacrifice can be obtained from mankind now for such a purpose in any degree comparable to that which was abundantly forthcoming when every man and woman undoubtedly believed that in contributing to the work they were indefeasibly purchasing safety and happiness in the world beyond the grave. It is a mistake involving a confusion of ideas to imagine that the great and magnificent works due to the piety of the "Ages of Faith" were raised by the operation of higher and nobler motives than those which prevail among mankind at the present day. The motives which, according to our notions, should rule the life which is to be a fitting preparation for another are high and noble. But there is by no means any superior nobleness or spirituality in spending money for the purpose of buying oneself out of the torment of purgatory, to investing it in railway shares for the maintenance and comfort of one's children. In the thirteenth, as in the nineteenth century, men sought that which appeared to them the surest and most profitable return for their money; and if men can no longer be induced to build such cathedrals as once they did, it is because they in fact no longer believe—recite what creeds they may—that money so expended is available for any such personal advantage.

Now if the comparatively small task of completing the façade of Arnolfo da Lapo's stupendous pile be achieved, it will be by appealing to really higher motives and nobler views. Now a pure love for art, unalloyed by any promptings of acquisitiveness, a delight in and reverence for the sublime and beautiful, an honourable and patriotic pride, these

are the feelings that must have power over the men of our generation, if the façade of the Florence Duomo is to be at last completed. Again and again the attempt has been made, and has failed, because the old beliefs were waning fast, and the old motives had lost their power; while those other inducements, which, however less powerful, afford the only means of supplying their place, had not yet grown into sufficient strength in the fostering warmth of modern civilization. Let us hope that the time has come when the latter class of sentiments may be appealed to with success.

It can hardly be necessary to remind the majority of English readers of the condition in which the Cathedral of Florence is now seen. The disappointment with which the eye rests on the unsightly mass of the huge white wall of the west front, after having dwelt with delight on the perfection of harmonious colouring and ornamental design in every other part of the exterior of the enormous fabric, will not be forgotten by any who have felt it. There is Giotto's matchless tower, ornamented in perfect keeping with the west of the cathedral, by the side of it; there are the wonderful and incomparably beautiful gates of the Baptistery opposite to it; there behind stretches away the vast length of the church itself in all its exquisite symmetry and harmony; and there, in the midst of all this beauty, marring the scene with its hideousness, like a scar on a lovely face, is the bald, bare, whitewashed wall of the west front, rearing its enormous height and width in impudently conspicuous deformity.

The first thing necessary for the removal of this disgraceful eyesore, and the completion of the work left incomplete five hundred years ago, is a design for the new façade; and the production of one, that shall be in due keeping with the variegated richness of the rest of the fabric, shall fulfil all the architectural requirements imposed by the adjacent buildings, specially the world-celebrated "Campanile," and shall not merely reproduce the forms of the old work, but be to the rest of the building what the west front of a church should be to its other parts, will tax the powers of any architect who may attempt the task.

It is very generally known that the design of Giotto for the completion of the west front is in existence; and it is often asked why that should not be executed. The fact is, that Giotto's design is not in keeping with the rest of the building. Taste was very rapidly changing in Italy at that period; the epoch of the Renaissance was approaching, and all the arts were beginning to be animated by a very different spirit from that which had inspired the previous generation. From some peculiarity in the medieval mind, homogeneity was utterly unvalued by it; and every successive artist called to carry on the great works, which no one life could hope to complete, worked according to his own notions and the prevailing taste of his time, without any reference to congruousness with that which already existed, or with the original plan of the structure. Almost all our own cathedrals are, as we all know, proofs of this fact. Thus when Giotto succeeded to Arnolfo da Lapo as architect of the cathedral, he commenced a façade in a very different style from the rest of his predecessors' work. His successor, Taddeo Gaddi, carried on Giotto's design, the latter having survived his appointment as architect only about twelve years. But long before it was completed that generation had passed away, and Oragna was introducing a new style in a more classical and Romanized taste. The result was that the façade was not proceeded with; and eventually Francesco de' Medici, the first of the name, who lived when none but Michael-Angel-like forms were in vogue, ordered what was built of Giotto's façade to be pulled down, in order to clear the way for a new design in the taste of the period. The Medici, however, when he put his hand to the mighty work of a more vigorous age, was sufficiently powerful to pull down, but was powerless to build up; and from his time till the present the façade has remained the opprobrium of every successive generation of Florentines, in the deplorable state in which we now see it.

Two things are therefore now needed—a good design for the work, in the first place; and in the next, the funds wherewith to execute it. Perhaps it may be suggested that these two requirements

should be placed in an inverse order. Steps have been taken to obtain both, however; and it is likely that the need named first above will be the first to be supplied. The measures which have been adopted for the attainment of both objects are as follows.

It is fair to state that an attempt was made in the last days of the late dynasty to achieve this great object; but it was then a Tuscan, and now it is an Italian object. The present movement in the matter may, however, be fairly considered as in a great measure the continuation of that begun under the auspices of the last of the Grand-Dukes of Tuscany.

On the 1st of September, 1858, the following proposal for a "Florentine Association for the purpose of erecting the facade of the Duomo," appeared in the *Florence Monitor*. I do not translate, for the document is needlessly long, but give the main points of the scheme.

The whole enterprise, the funds collected, and the management of them were to be entrusted to a "Deputation," or Commission, as we should say, composed of the Crown Prince, the Archbishop, the Gonfaloniere, three other noblemen, a Treasurer, and Secretary.

The members of the Association were to bind themselves for six years to subscribe in one or other of the four following classes:—The first, of contributors paying one lira, or eightpence of our money, weekly; the second, the third part of that sum; the third, a sixth part of it; and the fourth, a twelfth of it. The sum subscribed by the first class would thus be three hundred and twelve lire, or about ten guineas in the six years, and the other proportionally; the amount furnished by the lowest class being twenty-six lire, or about eighteen shillings and sixpence. The programme then sets forth that the entire number of subscribers needed would be at least eleven thousand five hundred. But it is difficult to guess on what possible calculation any such estimate could be based, inasmuch as the sum to be derived from a given number of subscribers would of course entirely depend on the proportion of them inscribed in each of the four classes.

The collection of the subscriptions is to be provided for by the gratuitous services of "Decurions" and "Centurions," who, at the completion of the subscription, are to receive, the former a bronze, and the latter, a silver medal.

Any subscriber falling four weeks into arrear is to be cut off from the work, his name erased from the rolls, and the money he may have already paid, forfeited.

Every person in every class employed on the work, artisan, artist, clerk, or other, is to be compelled to subscribe. (The Tuscan economists, it would seem, have not yet given up trying schemes for getting one-and-twenty shillings out of a pound!)

Then come the inducements held out to people to become subscribers; and they curiously strive to address themselves to both the classes of motives above alluded to. Every subscriber, on the completion of the work, shall receive a diploma attesting and recording his co-operation in the great work. A roll of all the contributors shall be placed in the national archives. The diploma shall be given forthwith to any one who will pay down his entire subscription in one sum. Those who engage themselves for ten subscriptions shall receive a medal bearing their name in bronze; those who pledge themselves for twenty shall have a similar medal in silver, and those who take thirty subscriptions, in gold.

Then come the inducements of the old kind, laggingly, at the tail of their more powerful modern competitors.

The very first monies received shall go to form a fund for an annual service for the souls of deceased contributors.

The Holy Father shall be implored to grant a plenary indulgence, to be gained on the same day for the living contributors and their families.

A sufficient sum of money seems to have been received, according to these conditions, to pay the preliminary expenses of the renewed attempt now to be made. But it is understood that this part of the old scheme—that concerning the means and manner of raising the subscription—is to be revised; as indeed is greatly needed.

Not so, however, the conditions laid down for the obtaining of a design for the work. In the *Moni-*

tor of the 18th of April, just nine days before the revolution, the following notification appeared; and the terms of the competition then proposed to the architects of Europe are to be maintained by the new Commission, of which the Prince di Carignano is President.

The competition is open to all persons of all nations.

The projects to be sent sealed, with a motto, together with a sealed letter containing the author's name, bearing the same motto. None to be opened save those to which prizes have been adjudged.

Designs must be geometrical, not in perspective; must be in the scale of one to fifty, and water-coloured to show the different materials employed. Any infringement of these rules will cause rejection.

All the designs sent to be publicly exhibited before judgment shall have passed on them by the Commissioners. This exhibition shall last a month.

All necessary information, as well as plans and measures and views of the different parts of the cathedral and the surrounding buildings, &c., may be seen at the "Belle Arti" in Florence, and at all the Tuscan Legations and Consulates in Europe.

Prizes shall be given to the six best designs:—1st, 12,000 lire (about £400); 2nd, 10,000 lire; 3rd, 8,000 lire; 4th, 5th, 6th, 2000 lire each. The three first designs to remain the property of the Commissioners; who do not, however, bind themselves, in case they select one of them for the work, to intrust the execution of it to its author.

These conditions, it is understood, are to be maintained by the new Commission. Fresh plans and measurements, &c., have been made by the architect of the cathedral, and will, it is promised, be ready for delivery within the year: in fact, they are already completed.

Lastly, all designs intended for the competition must be sent in by the end of September, 1862.

Assuredly there is no living artist who would not be proud to associate his name in the same fabric with those of Arnolfo, Orsagna, and Brunelleschi, and who would not feel that one lifetime is hardly likely to afford him more than one chance of earning any comparable distinction. With such an object of ambition proposed to the artists of Europe, surely we may hope to see England well represented in the competition. T. A. T.

DECEMBER 21.

A STRANGER to the festivities of a German Christmas, might, fancy, in walking through the streets, and on approaching the neighbourhood of the market-places, that, as once at Dunsinane, so here the woods around Munich had left their accustomed home, and had put themselves in motion; for goodly firs, with all their long green branches, may be seen waving and nodding as they pass across the broad streets, or massed together like a coppice, standing upright in some square, as though they had grown there. It is a busy time in every family; and young and old are making their several preparations for the festival Christmas Eve. The dullest plodder is unable to resist the contagion, and he bethinks him of some child whom he may surprise with a fitting gift, or an old friend, at remembrance of whose name his heart warms with kindling affection. It is all in vain to say you have no one to give to, or that you do not intend to make any outlay. Every one is talking of the anticipated pleasure which each little surprise is to afford; of the pretty thing got for this relation, of the work being prepared for another, and of the hopes that all will please, and that the receivers may not by any chance have a suspicion of what gifts await them. You hear all this, and you also are soon on your way to go a-shopping like the rest. And what excitement, and knowing looks, and air of secrecy you meet with in the faces of all! A great conspiracy seems to be on foot, in which all are concerned, but which fact all apparently are bound to ignore. People now steal abroad at dusk, and in the evening, half by stealth, enter the shops to select their purchases; and furtive glances are thrown continually around, especially towards the door, when a new comer enters, to watch lest an unwished-for individual should be present, and thus annihilate all the plans for a surprise, and make further attempts at concealment vain. And then the comedy that will be acted when such an un-

toward arrival spoils the well-laid scheme! The white lies—as transparent as possible—suddenly invented to ward off suspicion; the bye-play to throw the other on a wrong scent, and the tactics employed by each to out-manoeuvre the other. And at home, in the household, it is much the same. Here almost every act throughout the day is a state secret. Then how busy, too, are all the female members of the family! They are shut up in their rooms, hard at work with some web or embroidery, and have no time for anything—for a walk, a visit, or a party. All customary occupation or amusement is now in abeyance. The great conspiracy that is going on, has completely changed every ordinary habit, just as it seems to have altered people's natures, and for the moment, to have made each one full of wile. Openness has ceased to be. There is guile in every mouth. Observations are made, things are spoken of with other than the seeming object. The speaker sayeth one thing, but he all the while thinketh of another. He seeketh to fathom the thoughts of his neighbour, and learn what he wisheth to have. Chance words, let fall inadvertently, are seized upon; and thence deductions are made as to what could give him who uttered them most pleasure as a Christmas gift.

The Christmas tree is smuggled into the house as though it were contraband and the custom-house officer were at the corner of the street waiting to pounce upon and confiscate it. Especially where children are this is a matter of great importance; and for this operation a wise generalship generally selects an hour before the little ones are up, or when for a surety they will be absent from home; for it is as if the tree that on Christmas Eve stands before them in all its glory and radiance and adornings, would infallibly lose somewhat of its importance and its interest, were it to have been seen before in the hands of some common piece of humanity, a mere tree of the forest, a thing which a woodman had cut down, which had been brought to market and bartered for, and finally sold for a shilling.

The tree as it glitters there all gold and tinsel, and with toys hanging to its branches, with gilded nuts among its green boughs, and rosy apples and cakes and sugar-plums, is a thing of fairy growth. Why, the beaustalk of the renowned Jack was hardly more wonderful. There it stands, with its wondrous foliage, as great a marvel as any in the Arabian Nights. Who ever thinks of its origin, or how it came there in such great glory? What child stops to ask such questions? For him it grew as it there stands before him—toys and gingerbread and tinsel—ay, and burning tapers too; for in regions like those where that beautiful tree came from, such things, surely, are quite possible. At this sweet Christmas-time such a thing excites no incredulous astonishment, for it is a time of wonders; and a certain holy awe prevails that seems to make men's minds susceptible for the supernatural. At all events, it is so to children; and the magical tree which they gaze and still gaze on with never-tired eyes, belongs to that time of expectancy. There is mystery in the looks and in the words of their fathers and mothers; there is everywhere something more at work than meets the eye; even they, too, the youngest ones, are taken into some one's confidence and required to be secret; there is notice of a coming mystery in the Church service of this Advent time, and every where is sign of preparation for a high festival.

It is a happy time. It is essentially a time of manifested "goodwill." Tokens of recollection when they were least expected, proofs of love are manifested according to the means of the giver, and there is "joy" in the hearts of very many, and "peace" is also among them.

And though the Christmas festival I have here spoken of belongs exclusively to Germany, yet we all know of one family in our own England where, on the eve of the great holiday, the same gay ceremony was observed as is the custom here. And accounts circulated of the pleasures of such evening in that English household, and what delight was experienced when the father—who was not an Englishman—for the first time showed his wife and children a German Christmas Tree. An interest was felt in these things, relating as they did to the family-life of one whom all England loved and honoured, for she deserved the love. And Christ-



mas has come again, but he, whose presence contributed so much to its festivity and the happiness of that evening, is no more. And instead of joy, there are torn and aching hearts, and a widow bewailing him who was a firm support to her; a support needed, though she sat upon a throne. And at this season of rejoicing, all think of and sympathize with her, who has so suddenly been called upon to bear such a weight of grief. But we too have suffered a loss; the full extent of which we shall only gradually learn, when missing him, as will often be the case, who never refused his assistance or authority in aid of a good cause. His death has come upon us like a thunderbolt, and the shock has stunned us all.

**SCIENCE.**  
*General Outline of the Organization of the Animal Kingdom, and Manual of Comparative Anatomy.* By Thomas Rymer Jones, F.R.S.

In his preface to the second edition of the work above noted, Professor Jones tells us that his object in the construction of the work has been twofold; first, to lay before the naturalist a complete view of the organization and physiological relations of every class of living beings; and secondly, to offer to the anatomical student a succinct account of the structure and development of the vital organs, through all the modifications they present in the long series of the animal creation. That the design thus laid out has been successful is proved by the rapidity with which the book has passed into the hands of the reading public. We have now before us a third edition, while the recollection of the second edition still remained on the mind as of recent, nay, we may almost say of immediate date. Brief, however, as has been the interval, it has been amply sufficient to enable the author to introduce a considerable number of new points, indicating a rapid advance in the knowledge of natural history. Important alterations have been made in the arrangement of the animal series: the protozoa have been completely separated from the ciliated infusoria; the class helminthozoa has been redistributed; the classes rotifera and cirrhopoda have been brought into close proximity with the crustacea, to which they are intimately related; and the polyzoa have been set up as legitimate members of the molluscous division of creation.

As many of our readers may not be acquainted with Professor Jones's work, we cannot do better, before going further, than give them an idea of its general plan and scope. Commencing with a brief chapter on the classification of animals, he passes to the consideration of the protozoa, or the first animals, the primitives in which life is first manifested; next he passes to the infusoria, so termed by the earlier investigators, from the fact of their generally making their appearance in vegetable infusions; from thence he passes to the anthozoa, the zoophytes of the old authors, and from these to the hydrozoa, or freshwater polyps. Thence he considers the helminthozoa, or the parasitic worms; and after these the echinodermata, of which the star-fish is a type. Under the divisions given above we are borne through the history of those classes of animals which have no nervous system, and are led then to the homogangliata, or the articulata of Cuvier, in which we have developed an elementary nervous system, and senses correspondent. From these he passes to the annelida, or worms; then to the myriapoda, or many-footed animals, which form the transition from the red-blooded worms to the class of insects.

The transition leads to a chapter on the insects, followed up by an account of the arachnida, the spider class. Following this, we are brought to the crustacea, or the aquatic representatives of the insects and spiders, with which they form a collateral series; and from these to the rotifera, or wheel-like animals, formerly included under the name of infusorial animalcules, but now raised to a much higher position in the animal scale; thence carrying us through the cirrhopoda, he leads us to the heterogangliata of Owen, or the mollusca of Cuvier, devoting a separate chapter to a general review of the molluscous division of the animal kingdom. From this point, bringing under notice in distinct chapters the polyzoa, the tunicata, the conchifera, the brachiopoda, the gasteropoda, the pteropoda, and the cephalopoda, he brings us in chapter twenty-five to the vertebrata; and discussing the fifth division of the animal kingdom in a separate form, concludes his works with remaining chapters on pisces, or fishes; reptilia, or reptiles; aves, or birds; and the mammalia.

The reader will see from this outline that Professor Jones's book includes a very comprehensive survey of the animal kingdom; and we may say of it at once, that, taking it all in all, the student could not have a better guide in his first efforts to obtain a knowledge of the animal kingdom. Not so diffuse as to be embarrassing, nor so compressed as to be obscure, it offers such information as it is intended to convey, with ease, exactitude, and confidence, while the illustrations, which are profusely scattered through its pages, completely elucidate and simplify the text.

Such are the general characteristics of the work before us: we may turn from them to one or two special points. In the first place, we observe that our author is specially free from what may be considered in a class-book the taint of theory. We do not say this as opposing the advancement of theory as a principle of progression, for we know that all advancement in science is made on theory, but we refer to the fact as showing that Professor Jones knows how to write for that particular class to whom he addresses himself, and whose duty it is to learn facts and principles first, and as preliminary to that which is more profound and more deeply obscure. If in any given case he departs broadly from the principle which, as we have said, he has laid down, it is in his first chapter on classification, where he holds to the plan first laid down by Cuvier, that the nervous system should be considered as the basis on which all classification should be built. In this place he argues that as the nervous matter must be regarded as the very essence or being of all creatures, with which their sensations, volition, and capability of action are inseparably connected, so it is a legitimate inference that the capacities and powers of the several tribes are in immediate connection with the development of the supreme part of their organization, and that their entire structure must be in accordance with the nervous apparatus which they possess. That the nature of the limits and external members, the existence or non-existence of certain senses, the capability of locomotion, and the means of procuring food must be in strict accordance with the powers centred in the nervous mass of the body, or in that arrangement of nervous particles which represents or replaces them. But while thus adopting the nervous system as the natural and ultimate basis of classification, he candidly follows up his argument by stating that until we are accurately acquainted with the nervous system of the lower forms of the animal

world, we cannot apply to practice the views which physiology would lead us to adopt; and carrying out this view to its end, he proceeds in his labours on a simple but empirical plan, best adapted to his present purpose, a sketch of which we have already presented.

In the second place we may observe that, in his explanations even of abstruse points, he throws into the narrative, and into the arrangement of the narrative, a simplicity and order which carries the mind onwards to a comprehension of the subject, supported by a train of reason and thought, at once interesting and instructive. Thus, in his introduction to the vertebrata (Chapter XXV.), he introduces to us the fifth division of the animal kingdom, with its four great classes of allied animals, on the assumption of a general type of structure, modified in accordance with the endless diversity of circumstances under which particular races are destined to exist. The immeasurable realms of the ocean, the rivers, lakes, and streams, the fens and marshy places of the earth, the frozen precincts of the poles, and the torrid regions of the equator, have all appropriate occupants, as he shows, more favoured as regards their capacities for enjoyment, and more largely endowed with strength and intelligence than any which have hitherto occupied our attention, and gradually rising higher and higher in their attributes, until they conduct us at last to man himself. Fishes, restricted by their organization to an aquatic life, are connected by amphibious beings, that present almost imperceptible gradations of development, with terrestrial and air-breathing reptiles: these, progressively attaining greater perfection of structure and increased powers, slowly conduct us to the hot-blooded birds, fitted by their strength, and by the vigour of their movements, to an aerial existence. From the feathered tribes of vertebrata, the transition to the still more intelligent and highly-endowed mammalia is affected with equal facility; so that the anatomist finds, to his astonishment, that throughout this division of animated nature, composed of creatures widely differing among themselves in form and habits, an unbroken series of beings is distinctly traceable.

The foundation of the subject of study thus introduced being laid, the skeleton of a vertebrate animal is considered; the several sets of bones of which it is composed, the central portion, the basis and support of the rest, and of various appendages derived from, or connected with, the central part. The centre of the whole osseous fabric is described as made up generally of a series of distinct pieces arranged along the axis of the body; and this part of the skeleton is invariably present; but the superadded appendages, being employed in different animals for various and distinct purposes, present the greatest possible diversity of form, and are, many of them, wanting in any given genus; so that a really complete skeleton, that is, a skeleton made up of all the pieces or elements which might, philosophically speaking, enter into its composition, does not exist in nature, inasmuch as it is owing to the deficiency of some portions and the development of others in particular races that we must ascribe all the endless diversity of form and mechanism so conspicuously met with in this division of the animal world.

In preparing the student for the contemplation of the numerous modifications met with in the skeleton, and the variations in type apparent through the vertebrate classes, our author submits a caution to those whose studies have been confined chiefly to human anatomy. He insists against taking the skeleton of man

as a standard whereby the judgment of the student is to be directed; for man, so highly raised by his intelligence and mental powers above all other beings, is, so to speak, a monstrosity in the creation; and, so far from finding in the human frame the means of elucidating the laws of animal organization, it is found to have been constructed on principles the most aberrant and remote from those which an extensive investigation of the lower animals has revealed to the physiologist.

Lastly, we would observe, as a special characteristic of Professor Jones's work, that it is equally adapted to men of general education as it is to the professed student of natural history. We can scarcely, indeed, imagine a leisure hour more interestingly or properly filled up, than by occasional readings from such a volume as this. New fields of thought are opened, page after page, which fill the mind with the broadest views of nature, notwithstanding that the paragraphs are necessarily brief, and rather texts than sermons. We have turned over by accident, for instance, to a page in which are discussed the teeth of fishes; and here, at once, we discover mechanical adaptation so various and peculiar, that if a man will read he must be interested. Thus, we are taught that as fish are of a necessity compelled to catch with their teeth, and to retain their prey with a firm grasp, so they are obviously precluded from dividing or masticating their aliment. The mouth of a fish, therefore, is so constructed that every part is made subservient to prehension: teeth, sometimes in the form of delicate spines, or else presenting the appearance of sharp recurved hooks, have been fixed in every possible position where they could be made available as prehensile organs. Not only are the jaws densely studded with these penetrating points, but they are occasionally placed on every bone which surrounds the oral cavity, or supports the entrance to the pharynx. Then follow the peculiarities belonging to particular kinds of fish: the single fang-like tooth of the myxine, with its two horny saws on each side, enabling the animal first to fix its victim on its fang, and then to tear it to pieces with the serrated plates; of the lamprey, whose mouth is studded with horny teeth; of the carp, which has no teeth in its jaws, but a three-sided dental plate which might be compared to an anvil, in its throat, on which five large teeth work from the inferior pharyngeal bones; of the skate, the jaws of which are covered with teeth, flat and smooth, like a tessellated pavement, for crushing the prey; and of the shark, in which several rows of teeth, placed one behind another, are found concealed behind the jaw, with one single row of triangular cutting teeth standing erect and ready for use, falling off sometimes, blunted and unfit for service, to be replaced by the next row, which will rise and give a succession of efficient weapons for the life-purposes of the animal.

Or, turning from these points, and throwing over a few more pages, we drop on the mechanism of the eye of birds, and find again arrangements which the modern optician might study with infinite advantage to his art. In most particulars we find the eye of the bird described in its general composition as analogous to that of man. The sclerotic and choroid tunics are shown to present the same arrangement, the transparent humours of the eye to occupy the same relative positions, and the iris and ciliary folds to exist the same: but descending from generalities, the attention of the reader is invited to several special adaptations. First, the shape of the eyeball is peculiar: it is not spherical, as in man, nor flattened anteriorly, as in fishes and aquatic reptiles;

but, on the contrary, the cornea is rendered extremely prominent, and the antero-posterior axis of the eye is considerably lengthened. This is remarkably exemplified in the owl, in which bird, as Dr. Macartney pointed out, such is the disproportion between the anterior and posterior spheres of the eye, that the axis of the anterior position is quite as great as that of the other. The obvious consequence of this figure of the globe of the eye is to allow room for a greater proportion of aqueous fluid, and for the removal of the crystalline lens from the seat of sensation, and thus produce a greater convergence of the rays of light, by which the animal is enabled to discern the objects placed near it, and to see with a much weaker light. The differences in the form of the organ necessitate also a variety of modifications in the mechanism for purposes of adaptation, the most beautiful of which is that destined to regulate the focal distance between the crystalline lens and the sentient surface of the retina, in order to ensure the clearest possible delineation either of near or distant objects. The provision for this purpose is peculiar to the class under our notice, and consists of a vascular organ called the *marsupium* or *pecten*, which is lodged in the posterior part of the vitreous humour. This organ is composed of folds of a membrane resembling the choroid coat of the eye, and, being in a like manner covered with pigment, might easily be mistaken for a process derived from that tunic, with which, in fact, it has no connection, being attached to the optic nerve just at the point where it expands into the retina. Its substance seems to be made up of erectile tissue, and it is most copiously supplied with blood derived from an arterial plexus formed by the *arteria centralis retinae*; so that there is little doubt that being, like the iris, endowed with an involuntary power of dilatation and contraction, as it enlarges from the injection of blood, it distends the chamber of the vitreous humour, and pushes forward the lens, while, as it again collapses, the crystalline lens is allowed to approach nearer the retina; and thus the focus of the eye is adjusted on the same principle as that of a telescope.

In reviewing a book, such as the one before us, the temptation is strong to multiply illustrations and comments; for not only are the materials numerous, but novel and valuable, and each one as it were possessing peculiar attractions; the very multiplicity of matter therefore warns us that we must lay down the pen by recommending Professor Jones's book to the library of every scholar who would know by what strange plans and adaptations life, in all its phenomena, is presented to the mind on this world of ours.

#### INSTITUTION OF CIVIL ENGINEERS.

Annual General Meeting, December 17.—George F. Bidder, Esq., President, in the chair.

Before commencing the proceedings the President said, that under ordinary circumstances he should have suggested to the Members the propriety of adjourning the meeting, in order to testify their regret for the lamented decease of their Honorary Member H.R.H. the PRINCE CONSORT, and their deep sympathy with their beloved Sovereign and the Royal Family on their bereavement. As, however, the Charter imperatively demanded the election of the Council and Officers on that evening, the Council did not feel authorized in postponing the meeting, which would be restricted to the mere routine of the election.

In presenting an account of the proceedings of the Institution during the last twelve months, to which the Report was exclusively devoted, it was stated that they would contrast favourably with those of any previous year. The more than ordinary attendances at the meetings showed, that the

subjects brought forward for discussion had equalled, even if they had not exceeded, in interest those of former Sessions. The elections of Members and Associates had been as numerous, and as a consequence the abstract of accounts exhibited a very satisfactory result. Considerable additions had been made to the library, to which the attention of a special Committee of the Council had been closely directed.

The principal Papers read during the Session were then noticed; and it was remarked that many important works, some involving considerable novelty, had been executed by Members of the Institution, both at home and abroad, which had never been described. It was, therefore, desirable, that every acting and resident engineer, on the completion of any undertaking upon which he might have been engaged, should prepare a descriptive narrative of the progress of the works, of any peculiarities in their design, and particularly of any incidents that might have occurred during their construction.

With a view to encourage the production of really valuable original communications, in preparing the list of subjects for premiums for the Session 1861-62, it was determined to offer pecuniary awards not exceeding in amount twenty-five guineas each, in addition to the honorary premiums, for a limited number of papers of distinguished merit. Although five subjects had been specially selected, it was stated that other essays would be considered if of adequate merit. It was hoped that this would have the effect of inducing the presentation of many useful papers, not so much from the intrinsic value of the reward, as from the distinction it would confer on a successful competitor.

With regard to the library, it was stated that the application to the Lords of the Treasury for copies of the Ordnance and Geological Maps of the United Kingdom had not been successful; the reason assigned being, that their gratuitous supply had been discontinued in 1850, on the recommendation of the late Board of Ordnance, and that the late Institution of Civil Engineers could not be made an exception to the rule. No steps had been taken for their purchase, as for the same sum many books, atlases and general maps could be obtained, which were likely to be more generally useful. The purchases already made included Library Maps of Europe (topographical and geological), of England, Scotland, Ireland, India, the United States, and Canada; and spaces had been left for Maps of the World and of Asia to be added, as soon as the new editions now in hand were completed. Two comprehensive atlases and a few standard French and English works, especially to complete series hitherto imperfect, had also been purchased. Much useful information had been procured, particularly from the Continent, which would facilitate future purchases. Thus, there had been obtained, from the "Ecole des Ponts et Chaussées" a carefully prepared catalogue of works recommended by that school; from the Royal Institution of Engineers of Holland a marked list of the best books on water construction; and it was hoped that similar particulars would be shortly received from Germany and Italy. It was on all accounts desirable that the library should be unrivalled in its peculiar speciality; that it should contain copies of all treatises on engineering and the allied sciences, wherever published; and the co-operation of the Members generally was earnestly solicited, to enable this to be accomplished.

The abstract of the accounts showed, that the amount received from subscriptions and fees was greater than in any previous year, and that the current subscriptions were now 50 per cent. in excess of what they were in 1851. During the year the Stephenson and the Miller Bequests had been invested in Railway Debenture stocks, and an addition of £900 had been made to the Institution Fund, so that the total investments now amounted to £12,194. 12s. 11d. The sum on deposit at the Union Bank, and the current balance at the bankers', raised this amount to nearly £15,000.

The amount of arrears of subscription due for 1861 was £241. 10s., and for 1859 and 1860, £89. 5s.; together, £330. 15s. Great exertions had been made to reduce the sums owing for previous years, and in some cases the arrears had been paid in full, while in others a composition had been made. But



still the Council had been under the painful necessity, "after suitable remonstrance," of erasing the names of one Member, nineteen Associates, and two Graduates from the register.

The deceases during the year were announced to have been:—Mr. Eaton Hodgkinson and General Sir Charles William Pasley, Honorary Members; Sir William Cubitt, Messrs. William Allcard, Samuel Clegg, Nicholas Harvey, Joseph Mandslay, John McVeagh, John Plows, James Ralph Walker, and John Ward, Members; Colonel Robert Kearsley Dawson, R.E., C.B., Messrs. George Aitchison, James Braidwood, Charles Frederick Cheffins, Octavius Cockayne, Charles Cowper, Henry Alcock Fletcher, Lionel Gisborne, William Newton, John Pigott Smith, Edmund Treherne, and John Neville Warren, Associates.

The number of elections had been 69, of deceases 23, of resignations 9, and of ensures 22, so that the effective increase of the year was 15, making the total number of members of all classes 945. It was mentioned that within the last quarter of a year a number of Members of all classes had increased nearly fourfold.

In closing the Report, the Council urged that the success of the Institution depended a great deal more upon the individual exertions of the Members, in support of its scientific character, than upon its pecuniary prosperity; and that it could not continue to hold the high position it had already attained, without efforts and sacrifices being made by the present Members, similar to those which were so unremittently and so freely incurred by their predecessors.

After the reading of the Report, Telford medals were presented to Messrs. W. H. Preece, G. B. Bidder, junior, and F. Fox; Council premiums of books to Messrs. W. H. Preece, F. Braithwaite, G. Hurwood, and W. Hall; and the Manby premium, in books, to Mr. G. P. Bidder, junior.

The following gentlemen were elected to fill the several offices on the Council for the ensuing year:—John Hawkshaw, President; J. E. Errington, J. Fowler, C. H. Gregory, and J. R. McClean, Vice-Presidents; Sir William Armstrong, J. Cubitt, T. E. Harrison, T. Hawksley, G. W. Hemans, J. Murray, J. S. Russell, G. R. Stephenson, C. Vignoles, and J. Whitworth, Members; and Mr. John Cochran, and Colonel Simmons, R.E., Associates.

#### ROYAL INSTITUTION.

December 31, three o'clock.—Professor Tyndall: On Light (Juvenile Lectures).

January 2, three o'clock.—Professor Tyndall: On Light (Juvenile Lectures).

January 4, three o'clock.—Professor Tyndall: On Light (Juvenile Lectures).

#### CORRESPONDENCE.

##### MR. MAYER'S PAPYRI.

To the Editor of the Literary Gazette.

Sir,—As you have in your review of the recent publication of Dr. Simonides, made use of my name, I claim the insertion of a few lines defining my own position in reference to the papyri, which you have thought proper to notice in such unqualified terms of distrust.

The simple facts are that the manuscripts, of which the facsimiles are before the public, are part only of a collection which I acquired from two different sources, viz. the late Mr. Sams, and from the Rev. H. Stobart; and as they have been disarranged more than once in my museum, it is not in my power to state with perfect accuracy from which of these sources any particular papyri was derived.

Dr. Simonides was introduced to me, as stated by him, at my museum; and after we had been acquainted for some time, and he had given me in writing his interpretation of several of the hieroglyphical inscriptions in the museum, I requested him to unroll and decipher for me some of many rolls of papyri which were on my shelves; and he shortly afterwards commenced his operations in the library of the museum, the necessary materials for unrolling, such as linen, starch, &c., being supplied by the Curator, who attended on him, and with myself saw many of the manuscripts opened.

Dr. Simonides told me, during the time that he was thus engaged, that the papyri were of extreme Biblical interest, and from time to time the results of his discoveries were communicated to the papers.

I leave to Dr. Simonides himself the vindication of his character from the charges brought against him; but it is absolutely necessary that the public should be made aware that the papyri in question are in no way connected with Dr. Simonides, except in as far as he has unrolled and illustrated them, and that they are and have been for some years the property of, Sir, yours respectfully,

JOSEPH MAYER.

Liverpool, December 18th, 1861.

#### MUSIC AND DRAMA.

##### THE THEATRES.

Christmas has once more brought about the season of Pantomime, and the sock and buskin are alike laid by for the gauze of Columbine or the wand of Harlequin; the dispute between the old and new Othello is hushed; the star of Fechter has paled before the brilliant coloured fires of the extravaganza; and *Lord Dunsinore* must yawn in solitude till the popular appetite for reasonable absurdity has been sated. Our space and the time of our publication alike compel us to leave till our next issue our notice of the novelties that the present week has witnessed; but we will refer to one pantomime, and we are bound by traditional respect to let the place of honour be assigned to

##### DRURY LANE.

The Pantomime of *Drury Lane* is of course the pantomime of the season—most gorgeous in costume, most whimsical in conception; and on the present occasion Mr. Beverley has outdone himself in the beauty of his scenery and in the wonderful mechanical effects he has produced. The foundations of the burlesque opening consist of various nursery ballads, of which the leading ones are the story of "Old Mother Hubbard and her Wonderful Dog" and the "House that Jack Built." These have been by Mr. Blanchard combined together, though not over-felicitously, so as to form one plot; and he connects with them Dame Trot with her Cat, and various other legends of feminine characters who have been in the nursery popularly associated and immortalized with some sympathizing animal or bird. In order to afford scope for the interference of the fairies, he transforms these respectable old ladies into witches; and there is an incantation scene framed upon the celebrated ones in *Macbeth*. There are some tolerably happy allusions to the topics of the day, but as a whole the opening portion is not quite worthy of its predecessors at *Drury Lane*. The great beauty of the piece, and that which secures its success, consists in the admirable scenery by Mr. Beverley, which equalled anything by that artist we ever saw upon the stage, and secured his frequent recall to receive the applause of a house crowded in every part. The transformation scene was a perfect triumph of scenic decoration. There are one or two very pretty dances, in which the Misses Gunnis were warmly received. The Grand Ballet *Change-a-lanterne* was most effective. The comic business was of the usual kind, but sadly overburdened with sprites, grotesques, and other modern abominations introduced, to the great disgust of the admirers of legitimate pantomime (for even in pantomime there is legitimacy), and whose proper sphere is in the exhibitions of the Circus. One or two of the changes that took place in the course of the harlequinade were clever, as the conversion of a box of cheese into a mouse-trap, in which Clown was caught; and the sudden disappearance of a bathing-machine on the seashore, leaving an astonished gentleman in the act of preparing for immersion in the waves. Not the least interesting event during the evening was the enthusiastic *encore* that was accorded by a house crowded in every part, and no inconsiderable portion of whose occupants consisted of roughs, to a performance of "God save the Queen." The sympathy that was evoked was as unanimous as it was thrilling, and the chorus of voices that joined in its concluding prayer produced a most striking effect.

#### MISCELLANEA.

Literary news in the Christmas week is generally very scant. Authors are away with their red-faced country friends, and publishers are busy making up the accounts of the year. We have, therefore, but little of importance to communicate this week.

Of literary booksellers—those who occasionally write as well as sell—London has always possessed a goodly number. We are glad to learn that Mr. Edmund Routledge, of Farringdon Street, the son of the founder of the well-known Firm, proposes to issue with the new year a *Boy's Magazine*, to be edited by himself. Mr. Routledge is a fine-athletic young fellow, fond of field sports and out-door exercises, and just the very person, we should imagine, to suit the tastes and understandings of "Young England." Mr. Routledge, we would add, is a good general scholar, without the least trace of the pedantic.

The stock and copyright of De Quincey the English Opium-Eater's works, formerly owned by Messrs. Hogg, after passing through two or three London sale-rooms, have at length found a purchaser in Messrs. Black and Co. of Edinburgh.

Just two years ago this Christmas, a London publisher collected the materials and wrote a *Life of Lord Macaulay* in three days; the little book was written, printed, bound, and actually published the day after the great historian's funeral. The volume was a success, the idea was pronounced an excellent one by "the trade," and, ever since, the departure of a great man has been marked by the appearance of his "Life," at the modest price of one shilling, or sixpence, if there were not sufficient materials to fatten out the book. Two biographers are already in the field with little compilations relative to the sayings and doings of the late Prince Consort. Mr. Edward Walford, so well known for his shilling Peerage and Baronetage, issued his last Monday. The book is published by Routledge and Co., price one shilling, and extends to nearly two hundred pages. We have no doubt the "Life" is well written, but the portrait of the Prince which adorns the cover is an abominable caricature. The second biography is not yet published. Mr. John Timbs, however, is busily engaged upon it, and in due course Messrs. Lockwood and Co. will submit it to the great reading public, with "a finely engraved portrait," we are informed, as a frontispiece.

We learn from Paris that M. Lamartine, the illustrious French writer, and one of the Decembrists during the last French revolution, intends visiting England next spring. He is seventy-two years of age.

From Cambridge we learn that it is the intention of the authorities there to announce his Grace the Duke of Devonshire as a candidate for the Chancellorship, in the room of his late Royal Highness the Prince Consort. A correspondent states that his Grace is to be nominated purely on academical grounds; viz. the high distinction he achieved during his university career. The Duke, who is now M.A., went out B.A. of Trinity College in 1829, a year that is well known as Lord Cavendish's year, and was Second Wrangler, his senior being the present Lord Bishop of Worcester. For the Smith's prizes, however, the second great mathematical struggle, the positions were reversed the same year; the Duke gaining the first, and Dr. Philpott the second prize. His Grace also took a first-class in classics.

The Honourable Mrs. Norton's new poem, *The Lady of La Garaye*, is now ready.

The friends and patrons of the Royal Dramatic College will be pleased to learn that the receipts of the late Ball exceeded that of any previous year, and that the profits will fall very little short of £200. Every praise be given to the efficient and energetic Ball Committee—B. Webster, J. J. Jerwood, Creswick, R. Churchill, Borlase Childs, J. J. Staunton, R. Bell, and A. C. Billings, Esquires.

A new monthly periodical is announced for publication in January, under the title of *The Rose, the Shamrock, and the Thistle*. It is issued under the auspices of the Caledonian Press for promoting employment of women in the art of printing, and appeals for support to the "fair daughters" of England and Ireland.

# THE ART-JOURNAL,

MONTHLY, PRICE HALF-A-CROWN.

No. I. OF A NEW SERIES WILL BE COMMENCED IN JANUARY, 1862.

TO NEW SUBSCRIBERS the ART-JOURNAL of 1862 will be, in all respects, a NEW WORK, and to them it recommended on the following grounds. It will contain—

## A SERIES OF SELECTED PICTURES,

ENGRAVED IN LINE BY EMINENT ENGRAVERS FROM WORKS BY BRITISH ARTISTS.

Some of these selections have been made from Public Galleries, others from large and important Collections, but the greater number have been obtained from the comparatively small, though rich and varied, collections of private gentlemen—"the merchant princes" more especially, who have, of late years, been the chief patrons of British Art.

## A SERIES OF

## ENGRAVINGS FROM THE PAINTINGS BY J. M. W. TURNER, R.A., IN THE NATIONAL COLLECTION.

THESE ARE ALL LINE ENGRAVINGS BY THE BEST BRITISH ENGRAVERS.

## TOURS, BIOGRAPHIES, ESSAYS, VISITS TO ART-MANUFACTORIES, PUBLIC GALLERIES OF PICTURES, BRITISH ARTISTS AND THEIR WORKS,

AND VARIOUS ARTICLES, EXTENSIVELY ILLUSTRATED BY WOOD ENGRAVINGS OF THE HIGHEST ATTAINABLE MERIT.

It is, and has long been, the only ART-JOURNAL in Europe: it contains information, carefully sought and skilfully condensed upon every topic concerning which knowledge is requisite to the ARTIST, the STUDENT, the AMATEUR, and the CONNOISSEUR while, as a chronicler and teacher as regards the numerous and important branches of Art-manufacture, its utility has been admitted in every manufactory of Great Britain, in our Colonies, and in America, as well as in several cities of the Continent.

## DURING THE YEAR 1862, AN

## ILLUSTRATED CATALOGUE OF THE INTERNATIONAL EXHIBITION

Will be issued with the ART-JOURNAL, in Monthly Parts—each part consisting of twenty-four illustrated pages, containing about one hundred and twenty engravings. No extra charge will be made for the ART-JOURNAL containing such Illustrated Catalogue. Nor will any payment be required for the introduction—with critical and explanatory notices—of any object of Art engraved. It is quite as much a duty to give the utmost possible publicity to a production that, while conferring honour on its producer, may act as a teacher of others, as it is to exhibit it; we have not, therefore, thought it just to demand payment for such publicity.

No doubt there will be many to whom the ART-JOURNAL will thus be recommended; rightly directed efforts to advance any beneficial public undertaking are sure to be, in some way or other, rewarded, and we have reasonable expectations that the circulation of the ART-JOURNAL will thus be increased.

The ART-JOURNAL ILLUSTRATED CATALOGUE will thus be a report of progress, a volume of suggestions, a teacher from the lessons of many master-minds, and an enduring reward to those who labour for renown as well as for the ordinary recompense that is expected to accompany desert. There is no topic connected with the Arts, either "Fine" or "Industrial," in which the public is interested, or requires information, that does not receive consideration and comment in this Journal, by authors best qualified to deal with the several subjects. Its extensive circulation is the result of a large expenditure of capital, which has been continually increased, year after year, so as to augment the value of the JOURNAL, and secure its hold on public favour.

In the improvements they project, the Proprietors will be largely aided by the abolition of the duty on paper; the whole of the work will be printed on fine paper, and will be among the best examples of the printer's art.

The works to be engraved will be selected from the best contributions of the leading manufacturers—not alone of England, but of the World; they will be carefully drawn and engraved by the best wood-engravers. In a word, every possible effort will be exerted to place the Illustrated Catalogue of the Exhibition of 1862 among the most remarkable, excellent, and permanently useful productions which that Exhibition will call into existence, as the ART-JOURNAL ILLUSTRATED CATALOGUE OF 1851 undoubtedly was, in reference to the Exhibition of that memorable year.

Subscribers will be justified in expecting a work of greater merit, interest, and value than the ART-JOURNAL ILLUSTRATED CATALOGUE OF 1851, inasmuch as the experience then obtained will guide and determine arrangements for the Catalogue in 1862. Yet it cannot be presumptuous to state that its production was one of the most enduring of the benefits derived from the Exhibition in 1851—forty-five thousand copies of that Catalogue were printed and circulated; it made its way into every quarter of the globe, and it has continued ever since to act as "a pattern-book," not only in remote and comparatively uninstructed districts, but in "Works" that flourish in our great manufacturing cities and towns.

In 1839, when the ART-JOURNAL was commenced, the Art-industry of England was utterly inactive, and the public had no faith in the home productions of the workshop or the loom. We have exerted ourselves in every possible way to show "the commercial value of the Fine Arts;" to make manifest that in reality "beauty is cheaper than deformity;" and we have the happiness to know that the Manufacturers and Art-producers of Great Britain are aware that long anterior to the memorable year 1851, we had been earnestly, zealously, and continuously working as pioneers to the great army of all ranks by which the Victory was to be won.

Subscribers and the Public may rest assured that in no degree will the efforts of the Conductors of the ART-JOURNAL be relaxed. The Editor, and his many valued coadjutors, will continue to labour, with heart and energy, to render it in all respects commensurate with the growing intelligence of the age: to supply information upon every subject interesting to the Artist, the Amateur, the Manufacturer, and the Artisan: making it not only a record of all "news" concerning the Arts and their various ramifications,—a reporter of every incident it may be desirable to communicate,—but, by drawing on the resources of experienced and enlightened men, affording such information and instruction as may advance the great cause of Art—teaching, while gratifying, its professors and those who pursue Art as a source of pleasure and enjoyment.

LONDON: JAMES S. VIRTUE, CITY ROAD AND IVY LANE.



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# THE EDUCATIONAL DIRECTORY;

A SUPPLEMENT TO

## THE LITERARY GAZETTE.

THE EDUCATIONAL DIRECTORY is intended to form the most reliable and comprehensive Book of Reference on Educational Matters ever offered to the public. It will be a storehouse of facts—local, personal, and statistical—embracing every public and private institution of ALL DENOMINATIONS, in which the education of the YOUTH OF BOTH SEXES is undertaken, and, in its present form, will be the foundation of a work which, when completed, will be A PERFECT GUIDE-BOOK TO PARENTS AND GUARDIANS, and the best means of making public the various items of information respecting Colleges, Schools, and Similar Establishments which their GOVERNORS and PRINCIPALS can desire.

The plan adopted is based upon the usages of our public schools, but will be found equally applicable to every private establishment. For the present THE EDUCATIONAL DIRECTORY Supplements will be issued with THE LITERARY GAZETTE on the Second and Fourth Saturdays of each month. The details of the Schools are being gathered in large numbers; but to wait until the whole have been received, would be to postpone the work indefinitely; they are, therefore, being printed as they come to hand, under their local situations; and to render them easy of access, an index of places and persons mentioned will be appended every half-year. When the work is completed in this form, it is proposed that the whole shall be carefully revised, alphabetically arranged, and issued in a yearly volume, which will be supplied to annual Subscribers to THE LITERARY GAZETTE at a considerable reduction from the publishing price.

The information contained in THE EDUCATIONAL DIRECTORY is supplied direct from the Heads of Colleges and Schools, by a personal application to each individual Principal of such establishments, at an amount of labour and expense that can only be estimated by those accustomed to such undertakings. Among its principal features, the following particulars may be included:—

The name of each College, School, or Educational Establishment.

Its correct Address and nearest Post-town.

The name of the Founder, date of Foundation, and year in which modifications of the original plan have been adopted.

The Names of the Visitors, Patrons, and Governors.

Its Income (if endowed) in the present year.

Particulars of the value and place at which all Fellowships, Scholarships, and Exhibitions attached are tenable, and for what period.

The Names and Descriptions, Degrees (if graduates), Preferments (if any), held by each of the Masters, and a list of the Works of such as have published books on any subject.

The number of Scholars, free or contributory, at school in the present year.

Limits of Pupils' Ages.

The Annual Cost of each Pupil in School Fees and Board.

The Course of Instruction afforded.

Length and Seasons of the Vacations.

Lists of Pupils who have distinguished themselves by gaining Fellowships, Scholarships, Exhibitions, or passed Competitive Examinations for Appointments in the Army, Navy, Civil Service, &c., during 1859-60.

Means have been taken to secure the COPYRIGHT of THE EDUCATIONAL DIRECTORY, both in its Title and Contents, and although permission will be at all times freely granted, to those who may apply for it, to use any of the statements inserted, yet all infringements of the Property accumulated with such care and outlay will meet with immediate repression.

The Editor has determined that neither pains nor expense shall be wanting to merit a continuance of the zealous co-operation already afforded; which it is hoped will be yet further extended by every Principal of a College or School, who approves of the undertaking, mentioning to those similarly engaged, the nature and objects of THE EDUCATIONAL DIRECTORY.

Forms of return for the above, together with those for Subscribers and Advertisers, are ready, and may be had on application either personally or by letter addressed to "THE EDITOR OF THE EDUCATIONAL DIRECTORY, LITERARY GAZETTE OFFICE, 4, CATHERINE STREET, STRAND, LONDON, W.C."

(176) STEPNEY, MIDDLESEX; PROPRIETARY GRAMMAR SCHOOL.—Established in 1833, to provide, at a moderate expense, a liberal education for the sons of respectable persons residing in the North-east and East of London, and within the ancient limits of the Parish of Stepney, without the necessity of removing them from the care and control of their Parents. Patron, the Bishop of London; President, the Rector of Stepney; Vice-President, William Cotton, Esq., D.C.L., F.R.S.; Trustees, Raikes Currie, Esq.; M.P., Leonard Currie, Esq., Rev. Peter Fraser, Captain Henry Nelson, Thomas Walker, Esq., F.R.S., H. Loftus Wigram, Esq., Q.C.; Committee of Management, Dr. Ansell, J. Bartlett, Esq., J. Bromley, Esq., W. Collingwood, Esq., Rev. G. T. Driffield, J. Gole, Esq., W. H. Hackwood, Esq., Henry Hammack, Esq., Rev. A. G. How, James Self, Esq., W. E. Snow, Esq., George J. Taylor, Esq.; Honorary Secretary, Leonard P. Cox, Esq., 4, Lansdowne Terrace, Bow Road, E. Exhibition attached, Committee Prize, value £30 *per annum*. Head Master, the Rev. W. CHANTLER IZARD, M.A., late Scholar of Christ's Coll., Camb.; Assistant Masters, Mr. J. A. DEARLOVE, King's Coll., London; Mr. HUGH BROWN, St. Augustine's Coll., Canterbury; Mr. W. R. BROGH, King's Coll., London; French Master, Mons. S. A. MATEUR, of the University of Paris; German Master, Mr. J. A. DEARLOVE; Drawing Master, Mr. H. M. WICHELO; Music Master, Mr. VINCENT BARNARD; Drilling Master, Sergeant MARK JONES. No. of Scholars in 1860, 92. Limits of Age, From 8 to 18. School Fees, under 12 years of age, 10 guineas; above 12 years of age, 12 guineas *per annum*. These charges are in full for the Course of Tuition and for School Stationery, but Printed Books are furnished as required, and charged for at the end of each half-year. Drawing, Singing, and Drilling, are extras. The Annual Charge for Drawing (including Materials) is 6 guineas; Singing, 1 guinea *per annum*; Drilling, 10s. 6d. for the Season. All School Fees are payable half-yearly in advance, and every Pupil is expected to bring with him on his return, at the commencement of each half-year, the amount due to the School, in default of which his admission may be suspended. A Quarter's Notice is required to be given in writing to the Secretary, when a Pupil is about to leave the School. The Head Master receives into his house, 31 and 32, Tredegar Square, Bow Road, E., a limited number of Boarders at 80 guineas *per annum* (this includes the Committee's Fees, with all extras, whether belonging to the School or to residence in his house). He also receives Day Boarders at 16 guineas *per annum*. Mr. J. A. Dearlove receives into his House, 8, Tredegar Square, Bow Road, E., a limited number of Boarders at 60 and 65 guineas *per annum* (this includes the Committee's Fees, with all extras, whether belonging to the School or to residence in his house). Also Day Boarders at 12 guineas for six days in the week, and 10 guineas for four days. Course of Instruction, as nearly as possible the same as that pursued at King's College. It is the desire of the Committee to render this effective by teaching in it the following Subjects—Theology, General Literature and Science, Commercial and English Education, and the Applied Sciences and Mathematics. Theology—The Course of Instruction under this head comprises the evidences of Natural and Revealed religion, the Holy Scriptures, the Articles and Liturgy of the Church of England,

and Ecclesiastical History. General Literature and Science—This Course consists of Instruction in the Greek and Latin Classics, Modern Languages (French and German), Ancient and Modern History, with English Literature and English Composition. Commercial and English Education—This Course comprises Plain and Ornamental Writing, Arithmetic, Merchants' Accounts, and Book-keeping, Reading, Recitation, and Grammar. Applied Sciences and Mathematics—This Course includes Arithmetic, Euclid, Algebra, Trigonometry, Navigation, Land Surveying and Mapping, with the Elements of Chemistry, Geology, and the Allied Sciences. The Pupils are arranged in Classes, according to their proficiency, and in these according to individual merit; at present there are six, of which six is the highest, and the first the lowest. Class 6—Greek and Latin Composition, Greek Testament, Homer, Xenophon, and Thucydides, Virgil, Horace, and Livy, Geography, Ancient and Modern History, English Literature, and Religious Instruction; Class 5—Greek and Latin Grammar and Composition, Nepos, Caesar, and Virgil, Geography, Ancient and Modern History, English Literature, and Religious Instruction; Class 4—Latin Grammar and Composition, Caesar, Ancient and Modern History, Geography, English Grammar, Reading and Composition, and Religious Instruction; Class 3—Latin Grammar and Composition, Eutropius, Geography, Grammar, Reading, and Religious Instruction; Class 2—Latin Grammar, Easy Latin Composition, Geography, History, and Religious Instruction; Class 1—Latin Grammar, Reading, Spelling, the First Principles of Geography, History, and Religious Instruction. Mathematics and Writing—Arithmetic is required in every Class—in the higher Classes in all its branches, with Plain and Ornamental Writing and Book-keeping. French forms part of the regular course in every Class. German is taught only in the three higher Classes. Drawing forms no part of the regular Course—the Class is held twice a-week. Instruction in Landscape, Model, and perspective Drawing. Mechanical and Architectural Drawing, if required. Singing is thought, by the Committee, an essential branch of Education, but forms no part of the regular Course—the Class is held twice a-week, Monday and Thursday. Instruction is given according to Wilhelm's Method, adapted to English use by Mr. J. Hullah (under the sanction of the Committee of Council on Education), in Anthems, Glees, Rounds, &c. Drilling and fencing are also extra. Lectures are delivered in the School-room Weekly on one or other of the applied sciences. Strict attention will be paid to the wishes of parents respecting the particular branches of study to which it is considered essential that the attention of their sons should be especially directed, with reference to their future pursuits. Vacations, five weeks at Midsummer, three at Christmas, and one at Easter, at the close of which Pupils are expected to return punctually on the days appointed. A Register is kept by the Head Master of the attendance, progress, and general conduct of the pupils, of which half-yearly reports are transmitted to their parents or guardians. A General Examination takes place twice every year, and, at the Midsummer Examination, Prizes are awarded to the Pupils according to their proficiency and conduct. The first boy of the School receives a Prize from the Council of King's College; and,

in addition to the Scholarship and Prizes provided by the Committee, a Prize is given for proficiency in Theological Studies by the President of the School. Pupils educated in this School have the privilege of contending for certain Scholarships in King's College, value £20 *per annum* and upwards. They can also become Associates of the College, with many important advantages, in a much shorter time than those educated in Schools not in connection with that Collegiate Establishment. (See King's College, Calendar.) Forms of application for the admission of Pupils, and further information if required, may be obtained at the School; from the Head Master, 31 and 32, Tredegar Square, Bow Road, E.; or of the Hon. Sec., Leonard P. Cox, Esq., 4, Lansdowne Terrace, Bow Road, E. Honours obtained by former Pupils—The Committee's Medals for Proficiency in Arithmetic: W. Martin, 1857; G. J. Kent, 1858; J. Brown, 1859; E. Haslehurst, 1860. King's College Prize: J. Gill, 1851; J. Duncan, 1852; J. Addison, 1853; Townsend, 1854; W. Hunter, 1855; L. Hunter, 1856; Martin, 1857; G. Kent, 1858; Sanderson, 1859; Noakes, 1860. Civil Service Examination: G. J. Kent, 1858. Cambridge Middle Class Examination: H. E. Jones, Class II. in Honours, 1858; H. Sanderson, Senior Examination, 1859; Haslehurst, Junior Examination, 1860; Noakes, Junior Examination, 1860; H. Platts, Junior Examination, 1860. College of Preceptors, Examination, Michaelmas, 1859: H. Platts, Class II. in Honours.

(177) PRESTWICH PARK, NEAR MANCHESTER: LADIES' COLLEGE.—Established in 1855 by the present Principal. Visitors, the Rev. Canon Stowell, M.A., and the Rev. J. Bardsley, M.A. Principal, Miss Dickinson. Examiner, the Rev. W. CAINE, M.A., First Scholar, First Prizeman and Gold Medallist in Hebrew, Ecclesiastical History and Biblical Greek, &c., and for some years resident tutor in Dublin University. Professors and their subjects—History (Ancient and Modern), Latin, Greek, Logic, Theology, Euclid, English Literature and Grammar, the Rev. W. CAINE, M.A.; French Literature, Language, and Conversation, Mons. DE LANDFORT, B.A., Author of *The Christian Philosopher*; German Literature, Language, and Conversation, Dr. HEINEMANN; Astronomy, Botany, Geology, &c., F.R.S. &c.; and Zoology, J. McCANN, Esq., F.G.S., &c.; Drawing from Models and Examples, in Pencil and also in Water Colours, W. WALKER, Esq. Drawing is taught as a language; the great object being to secure an accurate observation of nature. *Viva voce* Examinations and Blackboard Illustrations are considered indispensable. Pianoforte and Class Singing, Herr GOTTSCHALK; Pianoforte, Guitar, and Vocal Music in English, Italian, French, and German, Madame ARNATTI COLLINS; the Harp, A. LOCKWOOD, Esq.; Writing, Arithmetic, Book-keeping, and Mental Calculations, Professor BOWLE; Composition, Miss DICKINSON; Italian Language and Literature, M. DE LANDFORT, B.A.; Exercises and Leçons de Maintien, Mr. NISH; Lectures on Physiology, Mental Science, Natural Philosophy, and General Chemistry, by Dr. HEINEMANN and J. McCANN, Esq. Since it is acknowledged that "She who has the best regulated mind will also have the best regulated household," the grand object of this course of instruction is to teach the student to think, and to think correctly, and to inspire them



a taste for intellectual pursuits, that will make them "fit to participate all rational delights wherein the brute cannot be human consort." No. of Scholars limited to 20 Boarders, and a few Day Scholars. Annual payment for Boarders without any extras, from 50 to 80 guineas; Day Pupils, from 20 to 50 guineas *per annum*, including music, and without any extras. Limits of Age, From 10 to 25. Course of Instruction, Sound religious and moral instructions in accordance with the holy precepts of the Bible. English in all its branches, Latin, Greek, Euclid, Logic, French, German, Italian, Botany, Geology, Physiology, Natural Philosophy, Mental Science, Zoology, History (Ancient and Modern), Writing, Arithmetic, Piano, Harp, Guitar, and Singing, &c. Vacations, Christmas, from December 16 to January 20; Midsummer, from June 16 to July 28. The College is delightfully situated on the hillside of Prestwich Park, surrounded by two acres of pleasure and recreation grounds. This establishment is most ably conducted, and affords very superior advantages to ladies who are seeking a sound and an Accomplished Education.

(178) WEST LEIGH, NEAR MANCHESTER. LANCASHIRE—HIGHER HALL LADIES' SCHOOL.—Visitor, the Rev. William Seaton. Principal, Miss HARPER. No. of Scholars in 1860, 45. Limit of Age, From 7 to 20, and upwards. School Fees, 45 guineas. Course of Instruction, Scripture, the English and French Languages, and Literature, Grammar, Composition, Geography, Writing, Arithmetic, Ancient and Modern History, Natural Philosophy, Music, Singing, Drawing, Dancing, &c. Vacations, Five weeks at Christmas, and six weeks at Midsummer.

(179) GREAT THURLOW, NEWMARKET. SOAME'S FREE GRAMMAR SCHOOL.—Founded A.D. 1614, by Sir Stephen Soame, Knt., three times Lord Mayor of London. Patroness, Mrs. E. Soames. Income from Endowments in 1860, £80 a-year. Head Master, WALTER OCTAVIUS FRENCH. No. of Scholars in 1860, Foundation, 6; Non-Foundation, 16. School Fees, Foundation, about £1; Non-Foundation, 3 guineas. Course of Instruction, Writing, Arithmetic, Book-keeping, History, Geography, Grammar, Astronomy, and Use of the Globes, English Composition, Geometry, Dictation, Latin, French, Drawing, and Music. Vacations, One month at Christmas, one week at Easter, and five weeks at Midsummer. The nearest railway station is Dullingham, six and a half miles from Great Thurlow, on the Cambridge and Bury line.

(180) WESTON-SUPER-MARE: LADIES' SCHOOL, 10, ROYAL CRESCENT.—Established in 1842, by Mrs. Rankin. Visitors, Sir William Miles, Bart., M.P., Leigh Court House, Somerset; Rev. A. Phillips, D.D., Hemdich House, Worcester. Principal, Mrs. WILMOTT, assisted by German and French Governesses, and Masters from Clifton and Bath. No. of Scholars in 1860, 12. Limit of Age, From 8 to 17. School Fees, From 60 to 70 guineas. Course of Instruction, English in all its branches, French, German, Classics, the Harp and Pianoforte, Drawing, &c., &c. Vacations, Six weeks at Midsummer and Christmas. Children from India, vacations and clothing included, 100 guineas *per annum*.

(181) WAKEFIELD, YORKSHIRE: QUEEN ELIZABETH'S FREE GRAMMAR SCHOOL.—Founded A.D. 1592, by Charter of Queen Elizabeth. There are 14 Governors. Income from Endowments in 1860, £250. Exhibitions attached, One of £80 *per annum*, in the gift of the Governors, tenable for three years at either University, with preference to boys "born" in the Parish of Wakefield; Two of £50 each at Clare Hall, Cambridge, tenable for Seven Years; One annually of £75 a-year, at Queen's College, Oxford, tenable for five years. One at University Coll., Oxford, of £30 *per annum*; the Two Exhibitions at Sidney Coll. have been declared open by the University Commissioners. Head Master, Rev. JAMES TAYLOR, M.A., Trinity Coll., Cambridge, Author of many books on different subjects; Assistant Masters, JOHN COOPER WOOD, B.A., St. John's Coll., Camb., JOHN DAUGHTY, and E. E. DEMYER. No. of Scholars in 1860, 50; Limit of Age, From 9 to 19. School Fees, Boarders 50 guineas; Day Scholars, 10 guineas. Course of Instruction, The Principles of the Church of England; Old Testament and Gospel History; the Latin, Greek, and French Languages; Mathematics, Algebra, and Arithmetic; Writing, Drawing, Geography, with the Use of the Globes; Ancient and Modern History; and English Literature. Vacations, six weeks at Midsummer, four weeks at Christmas. At the late Oxford Middle Class Examinations, this School had the First Mathematician, and the first and only First-Class Man in Drawing and Arithmetic.

(182) GREAT BARDFIELD ACADEMY, NEAR BRAINTREE, ESSEX.—Head Master, Mr. THOMAS MAOR. School Fees, £18 to £22; Languages extra.

(183) PETERBOROUGH: KING'S SCHOOL.—Founded by Henry VIII. Visitor, the Bishop of Peterborough. Governors and Patrons, the Dean and Chapter of Peterborough. Scholarships and Exhibitions attached, Twenty at the School, of £12 8s. each; Three Exhibitions at St. John's College, Cambridge, of about £30 each. Head Master, Rev. E. B. WHITLEY, M.A., Trinity Coll., Camb.; Second Mastership vacant. No. of Scholars in 1860, Foundation, 20; Non-Foundation, 30. Limits of Age, From 9 to 15. School Fees, 10 guineas; Board, 40 guineas. A reduction of £12 8s. *per annum* is made in favour of a King's Scholar. Course of Instruction, Divinity, the Greek, Latin, French, and English Languages, Mathematics, Arithmetic, Writing, History, and Geography. Vacations, Six weeks at Midsummer, five weeks at Christmas, ten days at Easter, and seven days in October.

(184) TAUNTON, SOMERSET: COLLEGE SCHOOL.—Founded A.D. 1522, by Fox, Bishop of Winchester. Visitor, the Bishop of the Diocese. Governors and Patrons, the Warden and Fellows of New Coll., Oxford. Income from Endowments in 1860, £30. Head Master, Rev. HUDSON GROSSET HEAVEN, M.A., Trinity Coll., Oxford; Mathematical Master, ARTHUR WEEKES, B.A., Sidney Sussex Coll., Camb.; Master for Modern Languages and Literature, PROSPERE CHARLES BAHIN, Phil. D.; Second Classical Master, ROBERT BAILY; Writing Master, DONALD GUNN; Drawing Master, EDWARD JEFFERY. No. of Scholars in 1860, 45. School Fees, 10 guineas *per annum*, £3 extra for Books, &c., if a fixed payment for such expenses is preferred; Boarders, in Head Master's

house, £60 *per annum*. Course of Instruction, Holy Scriptures, Liturgy and Catechism of the Church of England, the English, Greek, Latin, French, and German Languages; Mathematics, Arithmetic, and Writing; Ancient and Modern History; Drawing, Book-keeping, Fortification, and Physical Science. The School, though of very ancient date, and formerly numbering between 200 and 300 pupils, had of late years fallen into complete desuetude. It has, however, been revived during the last five years. Honours obtained by former pupils: Edmund Rogers, Woolwich; Compton Norman, Sandhurst; Lennox Napier, Cadetship, R.N.

(185) ESHER SCHOOL.—Head Master, Rev. CHARLES CLARE, Trinity Coll., Oxford, Chaplain to the Earl of Stair, Author of *Letters to an Undergraduate*, and *Sermons*, &c. (Cundell, Bond Street.) No. of Scholars in 1860, From 15 to 25. Limits of age, From 7 upwards. Course of Instruction, Classics, Mathematics, French, German, English in all its branches, Drawing, &c. Vacations, six weeks at Christmas, one week at Easter (optional), six weeks in the Autumn, corresponding with Harrow.

(186) READING, BERKS: ROYAL GRAMMAR SCHOOL.—Founded by King Henry VII.; reconstituted by Queen Elizabeth and by Archbishop Laud. Visitors—the Rev. the Vice-Chancellor of the University of Oxford, the Rev. the Warden of All Soul's College, Oxford; the Rev. the President of St. John's College, Oxford. Scholarships—Two at St. John's Coll., Oxford, each of the value of £100 *per annum*, tenable for five years by boys of at least two years' standing at Reading School, and certified to be of proper age, good conduct, and studious habits. These Scholarships are open to the whole school; and a vacancy will occur twice in every period of five years; the first vacancy will be in June, 1861. The President and Fellows of St. John's will elect the best Scholar. The Scholars are afterwards qualified to compete for nine close Fellowships at St. John's Coll. At Reading, four Scholarships of 10 guineas *per annum*, tenable at the School by boys of 14 years and upwards, are in process of foundation; two are already in operation; it is intended that the remaining two shall hold out encouragement to the study of Practical Mathematics and the Modern Languages. To those who come to the School at an early age the examinations for these Local Scholarships will be found a valuable stepping-stone to the competition at St. John's. Head Master, the Rev. ROBERT APPLETON, M.A., Pembroke Coll., Oxford; Second Master, the Rev. JOHN H. APPLETON, M.A., Oxford; Junior Master, Mr. W. H. COLEMAN; German Master, Herr RUOFF; Drawing Master, Mr. STREATER. Limits of Age, from 9 to 20. School Fees, Annual Payment for Town Scholars, 10 guineas; Entrance Fee, 2 guineas. Annual Payment for Boarders from 40 to 65 guineas; Daily Boarders, 25 guineas. The Course of Instruction, while fitting pupils for the University, amply prepares them for the New Middle Class Examination for Associate of Arts, &c., and also for those of the Military and Civil Services. Vacations, six weeks at Midsummer and Christmas. Honours obtained by former Pupils during the last few years—F. West, a Close Fellowship at St. John's Coll., Oxford, 1853; G. J. Hawkes, an Open Scholarship at Lincoln Coll., Oxford, 1855; J. H. Appleton, a Second Class at Moderations, Oxford; F. West, a Second

Class at Moderations, Oxford; E. Harris, an Open Scholarship at Lincoln Coll., Oxford, 1856; G. J. Hawkes, a First Class at Moderations, Oxford; F. West, a Third Class Final Examination, Oxford, 1857; J. G. Bailey, an Open Scholarship at Lincoln Coll., Oxford, 1858; E. Harris, a First Class at Moderations, Oxford; G. J. Hawkes, a First Class Final Examination, and an Honorary Fourth Class, Oxford, 1859; C. E. Appleton, an Open Scholarship at St. John's Coll., Oxford; J. G. Bailey, First Class, Oxford, 1860; E. Harris, Third Class, Final Examination, 1860.

#### (187) CANTERBURY: THE KING'S SCHOOL.

—Founded by Henry VIII., on the occasion of the re-founding of the Cathedral. Visitor, the Archbishop of Canterbury. Governors, the Dean and Chapter. Head Master, the Rev. J. MITCHINSON, M.A., Fellow of Pembroke Coll., Oxford; Second Master, J. STREATFIELD LIPSCOMB, Esq., M.A., Pembroke Coll., Oxford; First Mathematical Master, Rev. J. BATCHELOR KEARNEY, M.A., St. John's Coll., Cambridge; Head Master's Assistant, W. DENTON ATTWOOD, Esq., B.A., Fellow of Emmanuel Coll., Cambridge; Additional Masters: French, JULES MARTINET, B. & L., Univ. of France; German, REINHOLD ROST, Ph.D., Jéna; Drawing, M. RAZE; Writing, Mr. THOMPSON; Drilling, Sergeant CUNNINGHAM. Exhibitions and Advantages attached—1. The Foundation, consisting of fifty King's Scholars, to be hereafter divided into three ranks: 25 Probationers, value £10 4s. 8d., tenable for two years; 15 Junior Scholars, value £15 15s.; and 10 Senior Scholars, value £30, together tenable for five years. For election to each rank there is a competitive examination, as vacancies occur, conducted by the Dean and Chapter, every June and November audit. These Scholarships are entirely open to any boys between the ages of 9 and 15 (up to sixteenth birthday). Boys not in the School cannot be elected Probationers after their thirteenth birthday; and senior Scholars are elected solely from among the junior Scholars. 2. Two Heyman Exhibitions, value about £20, tenable at the School, as well as at Cambridge, limited to the kin of Peter Heyman, or in default to natives of Sellinge, in Kent. 3. Four Exhibitions, value £60 per annum, to be held four years (one is vacant annually) tenable at Corpus Christi Coll., Cambridge, and in alternate years at any College at Oxford or Cambridge. Candidates for these must have been King's Scholars for at least three years previous to the election. 4. Dr. Shepherd's gift of £30 as an outfit for College for the Exhibitioner of every other year. No. of Scholars in 1860, Foundation, 50; Non-Foundation, 30. School Fees, £16 per annum; Board in Head Master's House, 50 guineas inclusive. Course of Instruction, Classics, Mathematics, Modern Languages, &c. Vacations, Seven weeks at Midsummer, five at Christmas, and one week at Easter and Michaelmas. Honours obtained by former pupils in 1859: F. B. Butler, open Scholarship at Merton Coll., Oxford; Successful Candidates for direct Commissions, W. Stephenson, J. Archer, and B. Lonsley.

(188) BAKEWELL GRAMMAR SCHOOL, DERBYSHIRE.—Founded A.D. 1637, by Lady Grace Manners. Patron, the Duke of Rutland; Visitor, the Rev. H. K. Cornish, Vicar of Bakewell; Trustees, the Vicar and Churchwardens for the time

being. Head Master, Mr. KAY, Licentiate of the Royal College of Preceptors; Second Master, Mr. E. KELLY, late Second Master Amblecote Training School, Stourbridge; Third Master, Mr. A. ARNOTT; Drawing and Writing Master, Mr. W. W. KAY; French Master, Mons. LEFENNE. No. of Scholars in 1860, Foundation 10, Non-Foundation, 14; Boarders in Head Master's House, 26. Limits of Age, From 8 to 18. School Fees, Foundation Pupils, 1 guinea per annum; Non-Foundation, 2 to 4 guineas. Course of Instruction, Classics, Mathematics, English, Modern Languages, Music, &c. Vacations, One month at Midsummer and Christmas, five days at Easter, and two at Whitsuntide.

(189) MERCHANT TAYLORS' SCHOOL, SUFFOLK LANE, LONDON, E.C.—Founded A.D. 1561, by the Master, Warden, and Court of Assistants of the Merchant Taylors' Company, London, who are its Governors and Patrons. Income from Endowments in 1860, Certain Monies allowed by the Merchant Taylors' Company. Fellowships: Exhibitions, &c., attached: Thirty-seven Fellowships at St. John's College, Oxford; Six Exhibitions, of £60 each, on Dr. Andrew's Foundation and one on Dr. Stuart's, of £50, at St. John's College, Oxford; One School Exhibition at St. John's College, Oxford, £63; One Exhibition of £61 on Dr. Stuart's Foundation, and Four on Mr. Parkins's Foundation, of £50 each, at any College in Cambridge; Two Pitt Exhibitions, of £30 each, at any College in Oxford or Cambridge; Two Company's Exhibitions, of £50 each, at any College in Oxford or Cambridge; Two Exhibitions, of £20 each, at St. John's College, Oxford, on Mr. Fish's Foundation; One at £10 on Mr. Vernon's Foundation; One at £10 on Mr. Wooller's Foundation, all at St. John's College, Oxford. Mr. Juxon's gift to buy Books, £12, to a Scholar at Oxford and Cambridge alternately. Head Master, Rev. JAMES AUGUSTUS HESSER, D.C.L., late Fellow and Tutor of St. John's College, and Public Examiner and Select Preacher in the University of Oxford; First Class, Classics, Term Pasch, 1836, Preacher of Hon. Soc. of Gray's Inn; Hon. Canon of St. Paul's; Bampton Lecturer at Oxford for 1860; Author of *Schemata Rhetorica* Oxford, 1845; *Sunday—Its Origin, History, and Present Obligation*, being the Bampton Lecture for 1860; London, 1860. Head Master's Assistant, Rev. C. CROWDEN, B.A., Lincoln College, Oxford; Under Masters, Rev. J. A. L. ARREY, M.A., Pemb. Coll., Camb.; Rev. R. WHITTINGTON, M.A., Trinity Coll., Camb.; Rev. C. SCOTT, M.A., St. John's Coll., Camb.; Rev. A. J. CHURCH, M.A., late Scholar of Lincoln Coll., Oxford, Second Class, Classics, Term Pasch, 1851; French Masters, M. W. CHAPMAN and M. FELIX GENET; Writing Masters, Mr. F. W. GOLDESMITH and Mr. A. J. VIALES; Drawing Master, Mr. JAMES FAHEY. No. of Scholars in 1860, 260. Limits of Age, 9 to 19. School Fees, £10 10s., exclusive of books. Course of Instruction: the course of education since the foundation of the School has embraced Hebrew and Classical Literature; Writing, Arithmetic, and Mathematics were introduced in 1829, and French and Modern History in 1846, Drawing in 1856. Especial attention has always been paid to Religious training—the oldest Statute says of the Masters—“They shall teach the Children, yf neede be, the Catechisme, and instruccions of the Articles of the Faith, and the Ten Commandements in Latin.”

Vacations, Twelve weeks in the course of the year.

(190) BATH: KING EDWARD THE SIXTH'S GRAMMAR SCHOOL.—Founded by King Edward VI. Income from Endowments in 1860, from £500 to £600 a year. Exhibitions attached, Two of £25 a year, open to all universities, are about to be founded. Head Master, the Rev. H. STUART FAGAN, M.A., Rector of Charlcombe, Somersetshire; Second Master, the Rev. E. BARNUM, M.A., Curate at the Octagon Chapel, Bath; Assistant Masters, the Rev. C. H. COLLYNS, M.A.; F. LANSDOWNE, Esq., B.A.; J. BENNETT, Esq., Queen's College Scholar, Battersea Training College. No. of Scholars in 1860, Foundation, 50; Non-Foundation, 61. Limit of Age, To 18. School Fees, Non-Foundation Pupils, an inclusive payment of £8 yearly. Course of Instruction, Classics, French, German, Drawing, Land Surveying, and Practical Mathematics. Vacations, Six weeks at Midsummer and Five at Christmas. Honours obtained by former Pupils, a Sizarship at St. John's College, Cambridge, 1859; Scholarship at Lincoln College, Oxford, 1859; First and Second Class London University Matriculation Examination, 1860. Several Distinctions in Oxford Middle Class Examination, 1859 and 1860. The No. of Pupils in this School have nearly doubled within the last year and a-half.

#### (191) CHESTERFIELD: GRAMMAR SCHOOL.

—Founded in Queen Elizabeth's reign by Godfrey Foljambe, Esq., of Attenborough, Notts. Trustees, Godfrey Heathcote, Esq., the Ven. Archdeacon Hill, E. G. Maynard, Esq., the Rev. G. Butt, the Rev. J. Boyer, W. Hewitt, Esq., J. G. Cottingham, Esq., W. Cloughton, Esq., Mr. J. B. Robinson, and Mr. Lingard. Income from Endowments in 1860, £150. Fellowships and Scholarships attached. The town has a claim, jointly with two other towns next to Founder's kin, to two fellowships and two scholarships at St. John's Coll., Cambridge; there is also one small Exhibition of £11 per annum belonging to the school, founded as a testimonial to Archdeacon Hill. Head Master, the Rev. FREDERICK CALDER, M.A., late scholar of St. John's Coll., Cambridge, author of *A Familiar Explanation of Arithmetic*, &c., Whitaker and Co.; Second Master, Mr. DAVID CROOK; Third Master, Mr. THOMAS JACKSON SMITH; French and Drawing Master, M. ADOLPHE LAURY. No. of Scholars in 1860, Foundation, 32; Non-Foundation, 40. Limit of Age, Foundation, 15 years; Non-Foundation, unlimited. School Fees, Foundation, 20 free; the remainder (not exceeding 20), £1; Non-Foundation, £3 under 10 years, £6 above that age. Course of Instruction, Classics, Mathematics, and English in all its branches, French and Drawing (at an extra charge of £1 per annum). Vacations, six weeks at Midsummer; five weeks at Christmas; four days at Easter; and two at Whitsuntide. Honours obtained by former pupils: Frederick Arnold, Greek Prizeman and English Poem at Glasgow University, 1852; Second Class in Moderations, Oxford, 1857. First Class in Law and Modern History, 1860; C. P. Kendall, Scholar of St. John's Coll., Cambridge; Clarence Bovill Iron, Indian Civil Service Examination, 1859. Boarders are received by the Head Master; Terms, 40 to 60 guineas per annum; also by the Second Master at 25 to 35 guineas per annum.



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